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RITCHIE & BOND, Warehousemen, 61, St. Paul's Church-yard.

ROBERTS, J., Importer of Colonial Produce, 31, Barbican.

ROBERTSON, W., Wholesale Confectioner and Lozenge Manufacturer, 38, Queen's-road West, Chelsea.

ROSSITER, J., Wholesale Trunk, Portmanteau, and Portable Cabin Furniture Manufacturer, Bullock, and Overland Trunks for India, 15, Greville-st., Hatton-garden.

SANDERS, C., Gold Refiner, St. John's-square, Clerkenwell.

SAMUEL, H. S., Colonial Broker, 133, Fenchurch-street.

SCUTTON, G. C., Custom House Agent, 95, Gt. Tower-street.

SHAW, L., Collar Manufacturer, 8, Ropemaker-st., Finsbury.

SHAW, JOSEPH, Piano Manufacturer, 87, Hatton-garden.

SILK & BROWN, Coach Makers, 8, Long-acre.

SIMMONS, G., & SON, Wholesale Furriers, 29, Radcross-street, City.

SKINNER, JAMES & JOHN, Whip Manufacturers, 11, Finsbury-place, North.

SMART, J., Composition Ornament Manufacturer, 18, Crown-street, Finsbury.

SMITH, J., French and Electro-Plater and Gilder, 41, Cop-pice-row, Clerkenwell.

SMITH, J., Gas Fitter and Brass Finisher, 8, Charterhouse-In.

SMITH & SONS, Manufacturers of every description of Church and House Clocks, Office Dials and Time Pieces, Watch and Clock Glasses, Cases, Materials, &c., and General Brass Founders, St. John's-square, Clerkenwell (next the Church), and at Birmingham.

SMITH, W., Gas Meter Manufacturer, 66, Snow-hill.

SOMERVELL & BURR, Leather Merchants, 34, Noble-st., City.

SOMALVICO, J., & Co., Opticians and Nautical Instrument Makers, 2, Hatton-garden.

SPALDING & HODGE, Wholesale Stationers, 115, 116, and 117, Drury-lane.

SPRINGWILLER, A., Medicine Chest and Portable Desk and Dressing Case Manufacturer, 2, Duke-st, West Smithfield.

STAYNOR, J., Shipping and Insurance Agent, 110, Fenchurch-street.

STEVENS, J. R., Exchange Broker, 65, Old Broad-street.

STEWART, J., & Co., Foreign Warehousemen, 11, Old Broad-st.

STODDART, J., Wholesale Watch Manufacturer, 61, Red Lion-street, Clerkenwell.

STODDART, R., Wholesale Watch Manufacturer, 13, Red Lion-street, Clerkenwell.

SURGEY, W. P., Custom House, Shipping, Insurance, and Commission Agent, 2, Langbourn Chambers, Fenchurch-street.

SWIFT, R., Wholesale and Export Leather and Shoe Warehouse, and Consignee, 98, Hatton-garden.

SWEET, E., Wire Worker, 34, Cowcross-st., West Smithfield.

TALMADGE, J. T., & Co., Wholesale Tea Dealers, 61, King William-street, City.

TAPPOLET, D. L., & Co., Military and Naval Accoutrement Makers, Gold and Silver Lacemen and Embroiderers, 44, Lombard-street, and Little Britain.

TAYLOR, T., Ham Factor and Cheese Agent, 12, Duke-street, Borough.

THOMPSON, FENNER, & SWINFORD, Colonial Agents, 30, Gt. Winchester-street.

THOMPSON, W., & SON, Wholesale Brush Manufacturers, 15, Upper North-place, Gray's Inn-lane.

TILBURY, J., Coachmaker, 35, Gloucester-pl., New-rd.

TILLEY, W. J., Engine and Pump Manufacturer, 215, Blackfriar's-road.

TIMOTHY, D., Bed Feather Merchant, 31, Barbican.

TIPPLER, R., Colonial Broker, 89, Great Tower-street.

TOMS, J., 17, Milton-street, Finsbury.

TONKIN, J. W., and Co., Custom House Agents, 193, A, Piccadilly.

TRINDER, H., Export Scented Soap Works and Brush Manufactory, 75, Watling-street.

TROFF, JOHN, Watch Manufacturer and Wholesale Jeweller, 36, Hatton-garden.

TURRELL & SON, Coach Makers, 22 and 23, Long-Acre.

VENABLES, WILSON, & TYLER, Wholesale Stationers and Paper Manufacturers, 17, Queenhithe.

VINER, C. E., Watch and Chronometer Maker, 235, Regent-street, and 82, Old Broad-street.

WALKER, E., & SON, Watchmakers and Jewellers, File, Tool, and Material Manufacturers, 55, Red Lion-street, Clerkenwell.

WALKER, J. & A., Brass Founders, Engineers, Machinists, Gas Fitters, &c., 76, Goswell-street.

WELCH, FRASER, & Co., Colonial and Shipping Agents, Howford-buildings, Fenchurch-street.

WHEELER, W. S., Woollen Factor, 4, Ludgate-street.

WHITMEE & CHAPMAN, Manufacturers of Steel, Coffee, and Flour Mills, and Flour Dressing Machines, 18, Fenchurch-buildings, and 70, St. John-street, Clerkenwell.

WHITE, JAMES, Steel Corn Mill Manufacturer, 266, High Holborn.

WHITE, J., Coach and Harness Maker, 29, Long-Acre.

WILLIAMS, H., Mineral and Civil Engineer, 61, Moorgate-st.

WILLIAMS, M., Waterproof, 138, Fenchurch-street.

WILSON, T., Wholesale Perfumer, 132, Leadenhall-street.

WILCOXON, A., Wholesale and Retail Boot and Shoe Manufacturer, 60, King William-street, City.

WOOLLY THOMAS, Ship and Insurance Agent, 2, Cullm-street.

WOOSTER, J., Manufacturer of Portable Desks, Dressing Cases, Work Boxes, Tea Caddies, &c., Wholesale and Exportation, 9, Long-lane, West Smithfield.

TO THE
QUEEN'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY.

MADAM,

IN soliciting authority to lay this Work before your Majesty, I was actuated not merely by the desire common to every faithful subject of testifying, however humbly, a sense of dutiful affection to my Sovereign, but yet more from a conviction that a History of the Colonies, their Extent, Condition, and Resources, could with propriety be dedicated only to a Monarch most deeply interested in their welfare, and fully impressed with the value of these integral parts of the British Empire.

I have briefly traced the origin and progress of your Majesty's Colonial Dominion, the foundations of which were laid by the provident policy of your regal ancestors, Queen Elizabeth and King James the First, aided by the sagacious counsels of the great Lord Bacon; the wondrous structure has been reared with persevering energy by the wisdom of such statesmen as Clarendon, Halifax, Chatham, Burke, Pitt, Peel, and Russell; it has been enlarged and adorned by the genius of such patriots as Raleigh, Baltimore, Penn, Cook, Clive, Hastings, Cornwallis, and Wellesley; defended by the valour of such warriors as Wolfe, Elliott (Heathfield), Brock, Lake, Sale—Wellington, Hardinge, Gough, and Napier; and by the naval skill of Drake, Hawkins, Frobisher, Blake, Anson, Rodney, Duncan, Howe, Jervis, Collingwood, and Nelson.

The acquisition and improvement of Colonies has indeed been deemed so essential an element of national power and prosperity, that the best blood, the wealth, the talent of England have been unsparingly devoted to this great end; which, though at a costly sacrifice, has been attained; and in every quarter of the globe the Transmarine Territories of the Crown exhibit monuments of British heroism, proofs of patriotic deeds, and permanent illustrations of administrative ability.

The rule of your Majesty now controls an Empire so vast in its extent, that the influence of England is exercised in the remotest parts of the globe; the Sceptre of Your Power protects (beyond the limits of the United Kingdom) more than one hundred million FREEMEN—civil and religious liberty being the birthright of every Citizen of a State, whose first principles of government will

not allow her to tolerate slavery in any form, or persecution under any pretence—whether affecting her own children, or the stranger who comes within her gates.

Blessings such as these render the sway of your Majesty a substantial benefit to every denizen of this mighty Empire;—all share in its glory and prosperity, and have a common interest in the progress and proceedings of their fellow-subjects. The social and domestic habits, manners, and customs of the Parent State are preserved and adopted in the Colonies; the numerous temples of worship, schools, and hospitals, which distinguish England from every other nation on the face of the earth, and are the best evidence of her Christian character; the general principles of obedience to the laws, respect for authority, and love of order—are equally manifest in our most distant settlements as in any county of the United Kingdom.

To another striking point of resemblance I am enabled to bear my humble testimony; in the course of a personal examination of the greater part of your Majesty's Transmarine Dominions, I have had many opportunities of witnessing the loyalty of the Colonists;—they love “the island home,” that is to them the nucleus of their national feelings—cherish a strong attachment to their Sovereign and to Her Illustrious Consort—and earnestly desire to participate in the honours and distinctions which, emanating directly from the Throne, cause its dignity to be appreciated, even in the remotest portions of the Realm.

Two members of the Royal Family have visited the Colonies: his late Majesty King William the Fourth, who ever evinced an earnest solicitude for their welfare—and your Majesty's Royal Father, whose memory is still venerated in British America; for there, as in England, his just and generous mind—his catholic and philanthropic spirit—found its purest delight in promoting the welfare of his fellow-subjects, and in mitigating human suffering.

I acknowledge with deep respect the gracious indulgence of your Majesty in authorizing a Dedication of my endeavours to make the condition and worth of the Colonies more generally known and more fully appreciated—and I sincerely hope that the intrinsic importance of the subject may not be undervalued through my inadequate efforts for its development.

I have the Honour to be,

MADAM,

Your Majesty's dutiful Subject,

R. M. MARTIN.

INTRODUCTION.

SECTION I.

COLONIZATION OF ANCIENT AND MODERN NATIONS.

COLONIZATION,* that is the occupation and tillage of waste lands, is in accordance with the primary decree of Heaven, that man should be "fruitful and multiply, and replenish the earth, and subdue it." The earliest records of mankind consist chiefly of the history of migrations from one part of the globe to another, as population increased, or civilization created new wants.

This great principle, like the other primary laws of the creation, is universal in its operation, and extends throughout the animal and vegetable world; what man does from reason, the brutes do from instinct: gregarious animals separate into herds, and disperse themselves over a country as pasture diminishes; trees and roots send winged seeds or offshoots to a considerable distance to perpetuate their stock, or in search of nourishment; fish migrate from sea to sea; and insects traverse diverse regions according to their respective exigencies.

But the natural desire for abundant sustenance which impels the migration of animals, is counteracted in man by a strong attachment to his birth-place—by love of kindred, and by those social ties which bind together human societies. And it is wisely ordained that it should be so: man would never have advanced beyond the nomadic or wandering state, but for those local associations which attach him to his native land, and give an indescribable charm to the river, the mountain, or the glen, where the days of childhood have been spent, and where the emotions connected with his first ideas have been enjoyed.

Many urgent reasons, however, arise to counteract the force of local attachments. The duty of providing for offspring—a desire for adventure—the love of fame or conquest—a difference in religious or political opinions—a thirst for information,—each and all tend to disseminate mankind over regions which, from their position, climate, soil, or other advantages, present the best prospects of gratifying their desires.

We see these motives operating in successive ages; we trace them in the lives of Shem, Ham, and Japhet; of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob; and when individuality is merged

* *Colonus*, in the Roman acceptance of the word, originally signified as much land as one person could cultivate—"Quantum Colonus unus erat poterat;" from *Colonus* was derived *Colonia*, signifying a body of husbandmen sent out from the parent stock to cultivate other lands, and by a metonymy the place to be cultivated received the same appellation as the inhabitants who were to cultivate it,—*Colonia*;—hence the word Colony, which is used in the present work to designate *all* the maritime possessions and dependencies under the dominion of the British crown, not represented in the Parliament of the United Kingdom.

in national history, we mark them influencing the destinies of Egypt, Greece, Carthage, and Rome; and, in a later age, those of Spain, Portugal, Holland, France, and England.

Egypt appears to have been colonized by a race who, after the dispersion of mankind on the plains of Shinar, B.C. 2287, travelled westward, and spread themselves over Upper Egypt, founded Thebes, occupied the fertile banks of the Nile, and established Phœnician settlements, which, for a time, included almost the whole of the South coast of the Mediterranean, from Egypt to Gibraltar.

In the year 1556, B.C., Cecrops, at the head of a band of colonists, migrated from Egypt into Attica, and became the first king of Athens; in 1516, B.C., Scamander from Crete, founded Troy; in 1493, B.C., Cadmus introduced into Greece the Phœnician letters, formed the Greek alphabet, and founded Thebes. The expedition of the Argonauts was undertaken B.C. 1263, with the intention of opening the commerce of the Euxine Sea, and of establishing Colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis.

As the kingdoms or republics of Greece advanced in art, science, and literature, internal commotions arose. Food was with difficulty obtained for a superabundant and increasing population, consisting chiefly of slaves, and expeditions were fitted out by vanquished or disappointed politicians, or by adventurers desirous of fame, or prompted by a spirit of commercial enterprise, for the formation of colonies in the maritime ports of Asia Minor, in the Ægean and Ionian Seas, and in Italy. B.C. 1243, the Arcadians were conducted by Evander into Italy; B.C. 1124, the migration of the Æolian Colonists took place; B.C. 1044, the Ionian Colonies were formed by Greeks; B.C. 732, Syracuse was built by Corinthian Colonists; B.C. 713, Gela in Sicily was founded; B.C. 707, Tarentum was built by the Parthenians when expelled from Sparta; B.C. 703, Coreyra was founded by the Corinthians; B.C. 665, the Messenians, on their expulsion from the Peloponessus, passed into Italy; B.C. 658, Byzantium was built by a colony of Argives; B.C. 539, the Phœceans settled in Gaul, and built Marseilles; B.C. 469, the Tuscans formed a colony at Capua; B.C. 444, the Athenians sent a colonizing expedition to Thurium in Italy, and among the adventurers were Herodotus, Thucydides, and Lysias; B.C. 304, Seleucus founded Antioch, Edessa, Laodicea, &c. The Colonies of the Dorians were chiefly established in Italy and in Sicily, then inhabited by barbarous tribes; those of the Ionians and Æolians in Asia Minor and the islands of the Ægean Sea.

The Greek term for Colonies was *αποικία*—a “separation of dwelling”—a “departure from or going out of a house;” and the word well expresses the character of the Greek Colonies, which were often formed by a large number of individuals emigrating in organized communities from their native country, whose Government ceased to possess any authority over them; but with which, in many instances, they remained feudally united; aiding the parent state in time of war with money, ships, and warriors, or furnishing mercenary troops, as the Greeks (themselves originally Egyptian Colonists) had done to Alexandria. The Greek Colonies frequently asserted their independence by refusing assistance to the mother country, unless their own terms were conceded; thus the Sicilians denied the admission of an Athenian army into their territory to rest, when proceeding on an expedition; and Syracuse refused to co-operate with the Lacedæmonians during the Punic war, until Gelon, their chief magistrate, was allowed to command the united forces. In some cases the colonists severed themselves entirely from their native

land, and sought the protection of another government; thus Corcyra and Potidææ, colonies of Corinth, united themselves to Athens.

In the present day such settlements would not come under the denomination of Colonies; they were virtually independent states, maintaining an alliance with governments able to afford them protection, but they added neither power nor wealth to the states from which they sprung, or with which they were connected.

The Colonies of Carthage were formed on a different principle from those of Greece; they were regarded chiefly as a means of commercial advantage, and maintained as strict monopolies for the benefit of the parent state. Carthage, the most celebrated of the Phœnician Colonies, was established by settlers from Tyre. The city of Carthage was built B.C. 878, and destroyed by the Romans B.C. 146.

Throughout the greater part of the intervening period of 732 years, Carthage was engaged in extending her dominion beyond the limited spot on the African coast where the city was first established. Three hundred African cities owned her sway, which extended for 2000 miles along the sea coast, from the Syrtis Major to the "Pillars of Heracles." Sardinia, formerly belonging to Etruria, was one of her earliest colonies, and the agricultural resources and mineral wealth of the island rendered it a very valuable possession. Malta, Majorca, and Minorca, previously under the rule of Tyre, yielded to the supremacy of Carthage. Along the coasts of Spain, on the shores of Great Britain and Ireland, as far, if not farther south along the coast of Africa than Senegal and the Gambia, Carthage acquired settlements, or extended her commerce. The sole occupation of Sicily was long contested with the Greeks; its entire possession would most probably have delayed, if not averted, the ultimate effects of the Punic wars; but in the first of these wars Sicily and Sardinia were lost to Carthage. Deprived of those possessions, and consequently of the commerce and maritime position which they secured, the ruin of the Carthaginian power was rapid, and its conquerors became in their turn a great Colonizing nation.

The Romans, soon after the foundation of the Imperial City, planted settlements in its neighbourhood, which served as outworks for defence, and for the supply of the necessities and luxuries of life. During the second Punic war, sixty such colonies were established. After the destruction of the Carthaginian power, the spirit of conquest and the urgent necessity of providing for large numbers of disbanded and often mutinous soldiery, whose only means of subsistence lay in the tillage of the earth; the agrarian laws by which the senate was obliged to provide all its citizens with land, the augmentation of slaves, and the abundance of money, for which a profitable investment was found almost exclusively in the cultivation of the soil, all led to a rapid extension of the Roman Colonies.

The lands of conquered countries were considered the property of the state, and they were parcelled out among the public officers of the government, apportioned to the citizens for whom land could not be provided at home, and distributed among the soldiery. Military establishments were formed in the most fertile or the most secure places, where the wealth of the colony could be obtained, and its possession secured against any rising of the native inhabitants. Colonies such as these extended over Gaul, Germany, Spain, and England, and throughout various parts of Asia and Africa. It is difficult to estimate the area occupied by these colonies. From the foundation of the city to the death

of Augustus, 164 colonies were established in Italy, and 199 in the provinces. Crete became a Roman colony B.C. 66. Caesar formed plans (B.C. 45) for rebuilding Carthage and Corinth. London was built by the Romans A.D. 50. Agricola reduced South Britain to a Roman Province, A.D. 82. Augustus planted twenty-eight colonies in Italy; fifty-seven were established in Africa, exclusive of Egypt; twenty-five in Spain; four in Dacia, and five in Britain. It was estimated in the reign of Claudius, that Rome and its colonies contained 126,000,000 people.

The colonies furnished employment for the more adventurous of the Roman citizens, and yielded large returns for invested capital. Seneca (who at his death had money to the value of £600,000 sterling due to him from colonists in Britain) assigns the following reasons for the formation of colonies, which are equally applicable in the present day:—

“Nec omnibus eadem causa relinquendi quærendique patriam fuit. Alios excidia urbium suarum, hostilibus armis elapsos, in aliena, spoliatis suis, expulserunt: Alios domestica seditio submovit: Alios nimia superfluentis populi, frequentia, ad exonerandas vires, emisit: Alios pestilentia, aut frequens terrarum hiatus, aut aliqua intoleranda infeliciis soli eiecerunt: Quosdam fertilis ora, et in riuus laudatæ, fama corrupit: Alios alia causa exiecit domibus suis.”—(*Consol. ad Helviam*, c. 6.)

The colonists sent out by the senate were either Roman or Latin citizens.

The *Coloniæ Romanæ* enjoyed only to a limited extent the *Jus Romanum*; they were not permitted to exercise the right of suffrage, and magisterial dignities, military command, &c., were denied them; they were permitted solely the *Jus Quiritum*, namely, personal liberty, honours of gentility, dignity of family, &c.; and they were compelled to furnish such contributions as the senate and emperors chose to demand.

The *Coloniæ Latine* possessed rights and privileges of their own; were empowered to a certain extent to form their own laws; and whoever became an edile, or prætor, in a Latin town, enjoyed, by right of office, the rank of a Roman citizen. These Latin colonies also rendered tribute to the parent state. Their rights were styled *Jus Latii*, and it was not until after the Servile War that the privileges of Roman citizens were granted by the *lex Julia* to all the Latin Colonists.

There were other colonies whose privileges were comprised in the *Jus Italicum*; they were free from the taxes paid by the *Coloniæ Latine et Romanæ*; of this class were the Colonies of Tyre, Heliopolis, Palmyra, &c. Most of the colonies furnished their quota of troops for the Roman legions; the natives of each colony were drafted into regiments serving in distant settlements.

Political selfishness and inordinate ambition were the predominative motives of Rome, both in the formation and in the government of her colonies; which, as they grew powerful, threw off the yoke of their military tyrants. After 400 years' occupation of England, excepting in the roads made for the more complete subjugation of the islanders, we find few traces of the boasted Roman civilization, and no permanent benefit from their rule. Fifty years after the conquest of Asia, 150,000 Roman citizens were massacred by order of Mithridates; there was no binding link to connect distant parts of the empire; no community of language or of interests, and centuries of conquest and despotism, slavery and crime terminated, happily for mankind, in the complete overthrow of the “Mistress of the World.”

Proceeding chronologically (passing over the incursions and migrations of the

Northmen, Normans, or Danes, in the ninth and tenth centuries), the next Colonizing Power is the Republic of Venice, which was founded on the lagunes of the Adriatic, A.D. 737, by colonists from the Romana-Italian province of Venetia. The colonies of Venice extended along the coast of Dalmatia, to the Ionian islands, the Morca, the Greek Archipelago, Candia, &c. They were designed chiefly with a view to the extension of commerce; but Corfu and other settlements in the Ionian Islands evince to this day the power, opulence, and deep-laid policy of the Venetians. Genoa, on the acquisition of colonies in the Levant, along the coast of Provence, and in the Crimea, rivalled Venice; but both states fell into decay through the loss of their foreign possessions. The discovery of the new continent of America, (A.D. 1492) and of a passage by the Cape of Good Hope to India, opened to Spain and Portugal the means of acquiring colonial dominion, and gave a new direction to the commerce of the eastern and western hemisphere.

Heretofore all European, Asiatic, and African trade had been carried on by land, or by frail barks skirting the coast-line, or passing from island to island by circuitous and expensive routes. But the introduction of the mariner's compass into Europe from Asia (A.D. 1229) made the trackless ocean the high road of daring navigators, and brought the distant parts of the earth into comparatively close communication. From this era may be dated the commencement of a new and important epoch in the history of maritime commerce and of modern colonization. The nautical skill and daring of Prince Henry of Portugal, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, were rewarded by the discovery of Madeira and of Western Africa; the politic and thrifty Henry the Seventh of England gave employment to navigators in the hope of adding to his wealth and extending his dominions; but to the noble-minded Isabella of Spain, and the profound speculations, courage, and perseverance of Columbus, Europe is indebted for the discovery of a "new world" on the 11th of October, 1492. Between the years 1508 and 1510 Spain formed colonies in Cuba, Porto Rico, and Jamaica. In 1519 Cortez landed at Vera Cruz, and in 1521, with a few adventurers, conquered Mexico. Peru, Chili, and Quito were added to the crown of Spain between 1529 and 1535 by Pizarro and his generals. In 1532 Terra Firma was occupied: in 1536 New Grenada was subjected, and Manilla in 1564. The narrow-minded policy of Spain prohibited one colony trading with another, the colonial commerce was restricted to certain ports in the mother country, and for a long period Seville was the only port in Spain with which the colonies were allowed to hold intercourse. The object of the Spaniards in the acquisition of these colonies was neither that of the Egyptians, Grecians, Carthaginians, or Romans. Gold was the prevailing motive; the desire for immediate wealth over-ruled every consideration of humanity, of justice, or of sound policy; the natives were worked to death in the mines, shot like wild beasts, if they offered the slightest resistance to their merciless oppressors, or hunted with blood-hounds if they attempted to escape from the demons in human form who wantonly sported with their sufferings. Language would fail to convey an adequate idea of the atrocities perpetrated by the Spanish colonizers on the Indians, whose rapid extermination led to the introduction of negro slaves from Africa. Spain, for a time, derived great wealth, and obtained much power by means of her colonies; but no lasting benefit could arise from such ill-gotten riches and dominion. Spain lost in succession all her vast possessions in the

Floridas, Mexico, California, Darien, Terra Firma, Buenos Ayres, Paraguay, Chili, and Peru. She was entirely driven from every continental territory; Cuba, Porto Rico, Manilla, Teneriffe, &c., now alone remain; and notwithstanding her internal wealth, fine climate, and advantageous position on the peninsula of Europe, Spain, with her thirteen million inhabitants, is now the most sunken, degraded, and powerless nation of the western world.

Portugal competed for colonial territory with Spain, and by a papal decree the new countries in the eastern and western hemispheres were divided between the rival states, without reference to any other European nation. Madeira was discovered A.D. 1419; Cape Bojador, in Africa, 1439; Cape de Verd, 1446; the Azores, 1448; Cape de Verd Islands and Sierra Leone, in 1449. In 1484 the Congo was visited and the Cape of Good Hope discovered. In 1498 Vasco de Gama, after doubling the Cape, landed in Calicut, on the shores of Hindoostan, and subsequently the Portuguese built forts and formed colonies at Mozambique, Sofala, Melinda, and other places on the eastern coast of Africa; at Ormus and at Muscat, in the Persian Gulf; at Goa, Diu, and Damann, on the western or Malabar shores of the peninsula of India; Negapatam, and Meliapoor, on the Coromandel coast; at Malacca, and on the coast of China. In 1500 Brazil was discovered, in 1511 the Spice Islands were colonized, and about 1520 Ceylon was occupied by the Portuguese.

Although the hope of obtaining gold did, to a certain extent, encourage the progress of Portuguese discovery and colonization, the predominating motives were a love of adventure, a hope of attaining fame, or of acquiring honours from a patriotic sovereign; and, in a great degree, a religious spirit, verging on fanaticism, prompted many to seek, by converting the heathen, to extend the faith of the Cross. With the chivalry and enthusiasm of the Portuguese character in the sixteenth century was united nautical skill and commercial enterprise, of which latter the Spaniards were exceedingly jealous, and on the union of Portugal with Spain, the colonies of the former were quite neglected in favour of the latter. As Portugal lost her foreign possessions she sank in the European scale, and her colonies are now reduced to a few wretched forts in Africa: the small town of Macao in China, the island of Timor in the Eastern Archipelago, Goa (once a place of great splendour in India, now deserted, and in ruins), Madeira, the Cape Verd Islands, and some smaller places. As in other instances, the loss of her colonies has been followed by a change of the national spirit into apathy, indolence, and degradation.

A power that had reclaimed its territory from the ravages of the ocean, competed with Spain and Portugal for colonial dominion. The Dutch, while yet struggling for independence, were employed as the carriers to Lisbon from the colonies of Portugal, and thus became acquainted with the value of colonial trade. In 1584, Philip II. of Spain prohibited the intercourse of the Dutch with Lisbon; these orders being evaded were revived with greater strictness in 1594, and a number of Dutch vessels seized in Lisbon harbour were destroyed. The Dutch, being deprived of the carrying trade, were compelled to seek colonies for themselves; to which they were stimulated by the writings of John de Witt, who urged that colonies offered a field for exertion to men of abilities—were a good substitute for hospitals and charitable foundations—and were advantageous for men who had been unfortunate in trade. An association was soon formed to trade to “remote

parts." The first expedition sailed for India, 20th March, 1602. Batavia, in the island of Java, was colonized in 1618; a trade with Japan opened in 1611; a West India Company established in 1621; settlements were formed and conquests made in Brazil from 1630 to 1640; Ceylon captured from the Portuguese in 1640; St. Eustatia, Curaçoa, Saba, and St. Martin in the West Indies, colonized from 1632 to 1649; Surinam, Essequibo, Berbice, and Paramaribo acquired in 1670. Dutch settlements were formed in Asia, also at the Cape of Good Hope, and several parts of the African coasts; at New York, and other places on the continent of North America; and Holland soon rose superior to her former masters in maritime power, commercial opulence, and political consideration; but at the commencement of the present century, when Holland lost Ceylon, the Cape of Good Hope, Demerara, Java, &c., she sunk into comparative insignificance, from which she was only rescued by England's restoring Java, and other possessions in the rich Eastern Archipelago, by which the Dutch are now mainly enabled to maintain their position among European nations.

France was not an idle spectator of the contests for oceanic supremacy, which the possession of colonies conferred. Francis the First, with the ardour of an enterprising mind, encouraged maritime discovery. In 1552 Gaspard de Coligny, who had early embraced the reformed faith, was appointed admiral of France; and with the hope of rivalling every other nation in Europe, he projected a grand scheme of colonization, which was to extend from the river St. Laurence to that of the Mississippi; but Coligny perished as a Huguenot on the night of the massacre of St. Bartholomew, and his plans were not carried out. In the middle of the seventeenth century Colbert, minister in the earliest and best part of the reign of Louis Quatorze, made great efforts for the extension of French Colonies. Martinique, St. Lucia, Grenada, were purchased from private individuals: in 1661 France possessed Canada, Louisiana, &c.; in 1664 Cayenne was colonized; in 1697 St. Domingo; in 1670 Pondicherry in the East Indies; in 1720 the Isle of France and Bourbon. In the revolutionary war England deprived France of her colonies; St. Domingo was lost by a slave insurrection, and France has not since recovered her former naval power.

If Spain, Portugal, Holland, and France, during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries deemed the possession of colonies essential to their prosperity, how much more must England have felt their importance, by reason of her insular position and limited territory. Happily for her a monarch was, at an eventful period, on the throne, who stands distinguished in the page of history for the rare discernment she evinced in promoting the welfare of her people and the glory of her country. Elizabeth clearly foresaw that England could neither obtain nor maintain a prominent position among the nations of Europe except by means of her maritime power, which could be insured only by the possession of colonies. Encouragement was, therefore, offered to facilitate the discovery of hitherto unknown regions, and for the planting of new settlements.

In 1591 English vessels first found their way round the Cape of Good Hope, and in 1599 Queen Elizabeth granted a charter for the incorporation of a company of adventurers trading to the East Indies. Towards the close of the 16th century the attention of England was directed to the coast of America. In 1583 Sir Walter Raleigh obtained, by letters patent, a large tract of country which he named Virginia, in honour

of his Sovereign; and in 1584 the first English settlers were sent out by Raleigh to North Carolina, and established themselves on the island of Roanoke; but on the arrival of Sir Francis Drake, in 1586, they quitted the settlement in his vessel. The unfortunate Raleigh made several other attempts to colonize his territory, but they were all unsuccessful; and at the commencement of the 17th century there were no English settlers in any part of the continent of America.

In 1606 letters patent were granted to two companies named the London and the Plymouth. The London adventurers were to establish themselves between 34° and 41° north latitude, and the Plymouth and Bristol adventurers between 38° and 45° north latitude, on the coast of America. Great hardships were experienced by the early settlers from famine, disease, and wars with the Indians; and, in several instances, the attempt at colonization was abandoned. In 1610 the Virginian Colonists were on the eve of quitting Virginia when Lord Delaware, the new governor, arrived with a supply of provisions and 150 men.

During the 17th century the settlements planted on the coast of North America were, in chronological order, as follows:—Virginia, A.D. 1607; New York, which was contended for and alternately occupied by the English and Dutch, from 1614 to 1674; Massachusetts, 1620; New Hampshire, 1623; New Jersey, 1624; Delaware, 1627; Maine, 1630; Georgia, 1632; Maryland, 1633; Connecticut, 1635; Rhode island, 1636; North Carolina, 1650; South Carolina, 1670; and Pennsylvania, in 1682. Some of these settlements owed their origin to enterprising individuals, others to associations. Maryland was founded by Lord Baltimore who received a tract of country by patent 20th June, 1632. Georgia was granted to a corporation of twenty-one persons. New England was colonized by a congregation of English Puritans. Carolina was vested in a proprietary body, and in 1662 the Earl of Clarendon and seven others obtained from Charles II. a grant of all lands lying between 31° and 36° north latitude. Delaware was originally settled by an association of Swedes and Finns termed the “West India Company,” who were subdued by the Dutch from New York, in 1655, and the latter by the English in 1664. In 1680–82 the whole country was transferred to William Penn by the Duke of York, to whom a large portion of the coast of North America had been granted by his brother Charles II.

In 1776 the thirteen Colonies declared their independence, constituted themselves the United States of America, to which several other States have since been added; and their territory now extends from the frontiers of Canada to that of Mexico, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific

The existing Colonies and possessions of England have been settled or acquired, chronologically, as follows:—Barbadoes (our oldest Colony) in 1605; Bermuda, 1609; Surat Factory 1611; Nova Scotia, 1621; Newfoundland, 1623; Nevis, 1628; Bahamas, 1629; the Gambia and Gold Coast Forts, 1618 to 1631; Antigua, Montserrat, and St. Christophers, 1632; Fort St. George, or Madras, 1654; St. Helena, 1654–5; Jamaica, 1655; Fort William, or Calcutta, 1656; Bombay Island, 1661; the Virgin Islands, 1666; Honduras, 1670; Hudson’s Bay territories, 1670; Gibraltar, 1704; Canada, 1759; St. Vincents, Grenada, Tobago, and Dominica, 1763; Bengal Province, 1768; Prince Edward Island, 1771; Benares Province, 1775; Guutoor and the Circars in Southern India, 1778; New Brunswick, 1784; Penang, 1786; Sierra Leone, 1787. New South

Wales, Australia, 1787; Andaman Islands, 1793; Ceylon, 1795; Trinidad, 1797; the provinces of Tanjore, Canara, Malabar, Wynaad, and Coimbatore, in *Southern*, and of Allahabad, Moradabad, Bareilly, Rohilcund, and the Doab, in *Northern* India, 1799-1800; Malta and Gozo, 1800; Perim Island, 1800; Van Diemen's Island, 1803; British Guiana, 1803; St. Lucia, 1803; Delhi, Agra, Meerut, Hurriana, and Etawah, in *Northern*, and Cuttack, Balasore, and Juggernaut, in *Southern* India; several Mahratta districts in 1803-5; Cape of Good Hope, 1806; Mauritius and Seychelles, 1810; Ionian Islands, 1810-11; the Deccan and Nerbudda provinces, 1818-19; Singapoore, 1819; Arracan and the Tenasserim Provinces, 1824; Malacca, 1826; Western Australia, 1829; Aden, 1838; South Australia, 1834-5; Port Phillip, 1835; New Zealand, 1839; Falkland Islands, 1841; Hong Kong, 1842-43; Scinde Province, 1844; Natal, 1844; Labuan, 1847; Vancouver's Island, 1848; and the Punjaub Province, in 1849.

But a small portion of our possessions have been, in the strict sense of the word, colonized from England. Barbadoes, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Upper Canada, Bermudas, Bahamas, Antigua, Montserrat, Nevis, Virgin Islands, Australasia, and New Zealand, were planted by settlers from Britain; most of our other possessions have been acquired by conquest and cession. Ceylon, the Cape of Good Hope, and Demerara, were taken from the Dutch; Jamaica, Gibraltar, and Trinidad, from the Spaniards; Canada, St. Vincents, Grenada, Tobago, Dominica, St. Lucia, Mauritius, Malta, and the Ionian Islands, were captured from the French; Aden from the Arabs; Hong Kong, from the Chinese, and the Punjaub from the Sikhs.

Although later in the field of colonial enterprise than the neighbouring continental nations, our country advanced slowly, but surely, in the acquisition of colonial or maritime dominions. The North American continent and West India Islands at first engrossed public attention, and, in accordance with the national character, useful rather than showy and specious possessions have, generally speaking, been sought for, and obtained. Agriculture was rightly judged to be the basis of wealth, and the fertility of the soil and a genial climate induced bands of adventurers to migrate to the North American continent. With the growth of maritime commerce and the discovery of tropical countries, arose a taste in Europe for foreign commodities; hence the formation of sugar, coffee, and spice plantations in the West Indies. But agricultural industry, whether under the temperate or torrid zone, was not the only object contemplated; it was rightly foreseen, that the possession within the limits of our own dominion of various foreign products, would furnish lucrative and permanent employment for a large amount of shipping; that our colonists would, by their industry, acquire wealth, and become consumers of home manufactures, and that thus every item of colonial wealth would become, in the aggregate, a portion of the national riches. But in later times, other motives influenced England in the rapid extension of her colonial dominion. On several occasions, during the war with France and Spain, she was compelled, in self-defence, to deprive those nations and their allies of their colonies, as the surest means of weakening their power, and of augmenting her own. At the close of the war in 1814, England had stripped France of every colony she possessed, and had taken all that could endanger her from every other nation with whom she was engaged in hostilities; her fleets swept the ocean fearless

of encountering an European enemy, and her vast colonial commerce enabled her to bid defiance to Napoleon and his Berlin and Milan decrees for the expulsion of our trade from Europe.

The Colonial Possessions belonging to the nations of Continental Europe are—

FRANCE.—*In the West Indies*—Martinique, Guadeloupe, Marie Galante, Descada, and Cayenne. *In North America*—St. Pierre and Miquelon, near Newfoundland. *In Asia*—Pondicherry, Mahe, and Chandernagore. *In Africa*—Algiers, Bona, Senegal, Goree, Bourbon Isle, and Isle St. Marie in Madagascar.

SPAIN.—*West Indies*—Cuba and Porto Rico. *Asia*—Manilla and the Phillipine Islands. *Europe*—Teneriffe and the Canary Islands.

PORTUGAL.—*Asia*—Goa, Timor, and Macao. *Africa*—Forts on the east coast, at Mozambique, Sofala, Delagoa, Inhnam, Quiloa, and on the Zambize; on the west coast at the Congo river. *Europe*—Madeira, Porto Santo, the Azores, and the Cape Verd Islands.

HOLLAND.—*West Indies*—Curaçoa, Saba, St. Eustatia, Surinam, and part of St. Martin. *Asia*—Java, Sumatra, the Moluccas, Banca, and other possessions in the Eastern Archipelago. A factory in Japan. *Africa*—Some forts on the west coast.

DENMARK.—*West Indies*—St. Thomas, Santa Cruz, and St. John. *Asia*—Nicobar Islands. *Africa*—Forts on the Guinea Coast. *America*—Stations on the coast of Greenland.

SWEDEN.—The Island of St. Bartholomew, West Indies.

The foregoing brief sketch of the progress of colonization sufficiently indicates the importance attached to the possession of colonial dominion by ancient and modern nations; nor can any one examine their history without perceiving how materially their destinies have been influenced by the possession and government of colonies.

SECTION II.

EXTENT, POPULATION, CLASSIFICATION, ADMINISTRATION, AND IMPORTANCE OF THE BRITISH COLONIES AND MARITIME POSSESSIONS.

THE Colonies and Transmarine Possessions of England, of which it is intended to give a history and description, are so vast in their extent, so varied in their position, so diversified in their population, forms of government, products, and capabilities, that it is difficult to convey in few words a just idea of their relative importance; if arranged according to their position in the temperate or torrid zones, a very imperfect estimate would be formed of their capabilities, as the degree of elevation above the level of the sea materially influences the products of the soil; moreover, some territories principally situated in the

temperate zone, may be extended to the tropic, as Australia; some settlements reach from the torrid to the temperate regions, as Hindostan, and British America stretches to the Arctic Circle.

The following is a classification of them according to their Territorial Importance, Commercial Value, and Maritime Position:—

POSSESSIONS COMBINING TERRITORIAL IMPORTANCE, COMMERCIAL VALUE, AND MARITIME POSITION.—Bengal, Madras, Bombay, Scinde, the Punjaub, Assam, Arracan, Tavoy, Tennasserim, Wellesley Province, Ceylon, Malacca, New South Wales, Port Philip, South Australia, Western Anstralia, Van Diemen's Island, New Zealand, Cape of Good Hope, Canada (Lower), Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Jamaica, Honduras, Trinidad, and British Guiana.

TERRITORIAL IMPORTANCE.—Canada (Upper), Rupert's Land, Vanconver's Island, Hudson's Bay Territories, Prince Edward Island, Natal, Northern Australia, and other parts of New Holland, the Central Provinces of India, and the Punjaub.

COMMERCIAL VALUE.—Newfoundland, Cape Breton Island, Barbadoes, St. Vincents, Grenada, Tobago, Antigua, Dominica, St. Christophers, Lucia, Nevis, Montserrat, the Bahamas, Sierra Leone, the Gambia, Mauritius, Ionian Islands, Penang, and Singapore.

MARITIME POSITION.—Gibraltar, Malta, Gozo, Bermuda, Virgin Islands, Anguilla, Cape Coast Castle, Accra, Annamaboe, the Falkland Isles, Seychelles, St. Helena, Ascension, Heligoland, Aden, Hong Kong, Labuan, Auckland Islands, and the Andaman, and other islands in the Eastern Seas.

This classification, though perhaps the least objectionable, is still imperfect; for it is evident that several of the West India Islands and other settlements are of political as well as commercial value, by affording secure havens for our shipping; thus, mere fortresses such as Gibraltar, are useful commercial depôts, as well as political positions, and, with few exceptions, all are of some territorial importance from their rich and productive soil.

Geographical Position of our Maritime Possessions and Dependencies:

IN ASIA.—Bengal, Madras, Bombay, Scinde, the N.W. provinces of Hindoostan, the Punjanb, Assam, Arracan, Tavoy, Tenasserim, Wellesley Province, and Malacca; the Islands of Ceylon, Penang, Singapore, Labuan, Hong Kong. Area (in round numbers) seven hundred thousand square miles; population about one hundred and twelve million. In addition to this territory actually belonging to the British crown in Asia, there are tributary states extending over half a million square miles, and containing more than fifty million people.

IN NORTH AMERICA.—The Canadas (Upper and Lower), Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Cape Breton, and the Islands of Prince Edward, Newfoundland, and Vancouver's and Queen Charlotte; with an area of more than half a million square miles, and two million inhabitants. We have also on the continent of N. America, the territories belonging to, and under the control of, the Hudson Bay Company, extending from the northern frontiers of Canada to the Frozen Ocean, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific, which comprises upwards of three million square miles, and a population of about one hundred and twenty thousand.

IN SOUTH AMERICA.—Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice; Honduras and the Falkland Islands. Area about two hundred thousand square miles; population one hundred and fifty thousand.

IN the WEST INDIES.—The islands of Jamaica, the Caymans, Trinidad, Tobago, Barbadoes, St. Vincents, Grenada, Antigua, St. Lucia, Dominica, St. Christophers, Nevis, Montserrat, Anguilla, Tortola, and the Virgin Islands, Providence, and the Bahamas, and the Bermudas. Area about twenty thousand square miles; population nearly one million.

IN AFRICA.—The Cape of Good Hope and Natal, the Mauritius and Seychelle Islands, Aden (in Arabia), Sierra Leone, the Gambia, Cape Coast Castle, Accra, and Annamaboe, the Islands of St. Helena and Ascension. Area, four hundred thousand square miles; population eight hundred thousand.

IN AUSTRALASIA.—The great Island of Australia, or New Holland, which contains the settlements of New South Wales, Port Philip, South Australia, Western Australia, or Swan River, Northern Australia or Port Essington; Van Diemen's Island, New Zealand, Norfolk Island, and the Auckland Islands. Area more than three million square miles; population half a million, of whom 325,000 are Europeans and their descendants.

IN EUROPE.—Gibraltar, Malta, Gozo, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Santa Maura, Ithaca, and Cerigo, in the Mediterranean; and Heligoland in the German Ocean. Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark, have been held as fiefs of the Crown since the reign of William the Conqueror. The area of these territories and dependencies is about fifteen hundred square miles; population nearly half a million. Total area, *eight million* square miles; population* about *one hundred and twenty million*.

The numerous, intelligent, and industrious population inhabiting the British transmarine territories are as varied in their appearance, character, language, and religion, as the diversified regions in which they dwell. British India possesses a greater variety of races than the continent of Europe. Some of the subjects of the Crown in the East are bold and warlike, others timid and peaceful; some of olive hue, with Roman noses and flowing hair, others have the negro characteristics; some use a polished language, others a barbarous jargon; some are Monotheists, others sunk in the grossest idolatry; some generous and confiding, others treacherous and distrustful. Even in the island of Ceylon there are three races—the Coast Cingalese, the Kandians, and the aborigines or Vedhas. In some of our Eastern possessions Malays predominate; in others, as at Singapore and Hong Kong, Chinese constitute the mass of the population. A fine race, termed the Parsees, or Guebers, settled in Bombay from Persia, and many Armenians reside in Calcutta. Jews dwell in several of our Indian settlements. In the W. Indies there are nearly a million negroes of African descent, and in Guiana and Honduras several aboriginal tribes still remain. There are also in our western colonies many Mulattoes, the offspring of the white and dark-coloured races. The purely white race are few in number, and descended from the English, French, Spanish, Dutch, and Portuguese in the West Indies.

In British N. America there are about two million white inhabitants, of whom six

* In this and other places round numbers are used as best suited to a general summary of facts;—the latest official figures will be given in the body of the work.

nundred thousand are of French descent, and the remainder of the Anglo-Saxon race. There are also about one hundred thousand Indians in the territories confided to the management of the Hudson's Bay Company.

In South Africa, the British subjects are Dutch, English, Hottentots, Caffres, &c. At the Isle of France and Seychelles, principally French; at Aden, Arabs; on the W. coast of Africa, negroes.

In Australasia there are about three hundred and twenty-five thousand of the Anglo-Saxon race, and no other European blood; there are probably one hundred thousand New Zealanders, a fine race; and scattered savage hordes, in Australia. At Gibraltar, there is a medley of many Mediterranean and African races. At Malta, a peculiar population, partaking of the characteristics of the various nations under whose dominion the island has passed. In the Ionian Islands, the inhabitants are principally Greek, with some Venetian blood; in Heligoland, German; and in the Norman, or Channel Islands, French.

The languages spoken throughout the British empire, are English, French, Italian, Dutch, Spanish, Portuguese, Greek, Persian, Arabic, Maltese, Chinese, Armenian, Hindoostanee, Bengallee, Mahratti, Tamul, Telooogoo, Carnatica, Ooria, Singalese, Malay, Burmese or Assamese, Hottentot, Kaffre, Negro, New Zealand, and various barbarous unwritten tongues. There are about 5,000,000 Christians in our foreign possessions, including the Lutheran, Latin, Greek, and Syriae churches. There are about 50,000,000 Hindoos, professing the religion of Brahm or Brahma; about 20,000,000 Mahommedaus; about 10,000,000 Buddhists, or Jains; a small number of the Zoroaster creed; and the remainder are idolaters of various descriptions.

The other less striking diversities which distinguish the population of an empire exceeding in extent, opulence, and power, Rome in her palmiest days, are deserving of some consideration. The distinction between free and bond—to the honour of Christianity—no longer exists; that fearful outrage on humanity has, to some extent, been redressed, at a cost of £20,000,000 sterling; and in recording the millions of inhabitants congregated within the pale of a single government, the historian cannot but rejoice that he speaks of freemen and not of slaves.

Climate, food, and drink, as well as religion, laws, and language, produce differences in thought, feeling, and action. The Indo-British subject, living on the verge of the Himalaya mountains, is a totally different being from his fellow-citizen dwelling in the flat regions of Bengal. The Mussulman of Calcutta, who eats animal food, possesses far more energy and intelligence than the Hindoo dwelling in the same city who lives on rice and water. The ponderous brandy-drinking boor of South Africa, is a totally different man from the vivacious French Canadian, on the banks of the St. Laurence. A wide difference is invariably found to exist between the denizens of a low, hot, and damp region, and those of an elevated, cool, and dry atmosphere; varieties of food and drink produce equally distinctive effects. Estimating the whole population of the British Empire at 130,000,000, not more than 26,000,000 consume flesh abundantly; about 10,000,000 eat of it sparingly; 24,000,000 occasionally partake of it, and 70,000,000 live principally on vegetables and fish. Wheat, oats, and barley constitute the principal granivorous food of about 34,000,000; potatoes, pulse, and other vegetables, of about 16,000,000; and

rice, maize, millet, and several minor grains, of about 80,000,000 people. With regard to fermented or distilled drink, about 10,000,000 use wine frequently, 25,000,000 malt liquors, 35,000,000 distilled liquors, and about 60,000,000 confine themselves chiefly to aqueous beverages. About one-half the population of the British empire reside within the temperate, and the other half within the torrid zone.

These facts shew that the British is far from being a homogeneous empire; they indicate the great care required even in the application of ordinary rules, much more in the adaptation of abstract principles to vast and varied masses of men under different degrees of civilization.

It may be necessary to offer a succinct view of the home administration of our maritime possessions.

The whole of the British territories on the peninsula of India, and the settlements of Penang, Malacca, and Singapore, are under the management of the East India Company, whose delegated trust expires in 1853-54. The affairs of the East India Company are managed by a court of twenty-four Directors, and controlled by the India Board, which is presided over by a cabinet minister representing the Crown, who has under him a working department distinct from that maintained at the East India House. The India Board consists of the President, of paid or unpaid Commissioners (whom the Crown may nominate), and of the two principal Secretaries of State and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who always, *ex officio*, form three of the unpaid Commissioners of the India Board. There are two Parliamentary Secretaries to the Board, and the Clerks are divided into judicial, revenue, political, and other departments. There is a permanent Secretary of the Board, and a Librarian.

The Court of Directors of the East India Company are elected by the proprietors of East India stock, and presided over by a Chairman and Deputy Chairman annually chosen by the Court, which is divided into judicial, revenue, and other committees. The secret Committee, consisting of the Chairman, Deputy Chairman, and Senior Director, confer on all matters of importance with the President of the India Board. The patronage, consisting of the appointment of writers or civil servants, military cadets, surgeons, and chaplains, is annually divided into thirty shares, of which the President of the India Board, and Chairman and Deputy Chairman of the East India Company have each two shares; and each Director of the East India Company, one share. In India promotion, both in the civil and military service, goes chiefly by seniority. Staff appointments rest with the Commander-in-Chief, and high political trusts are in the appointment of the Governor-General. In England the President of the India Board has, under the advice of Her Majesty's ministers, the appointment of Commander-in-Chief of the Anglo-Indian army, and of Judges and Bishops. Her Majesty's government also possess a *вето* on the nomination (by the Directors of the East India Company) of Governors-General, Governors, and Members of Council. The Court of Directors may, however, recall a Governor-General without the consent of the Crown. The India Board, on behalf of the Sovereign, exercises a controlling power in revising all despatches prepared by the Court of Directors and addressed to the governments in India, at Bengal, Madras, Bombay, &c., and the Board alone sanctions increased expenditure at home or abroad. It also possesses an *originating* power of requiring the Court of Directors to prepare a despatch on any

named subject, of altering such despatch as it may seem fit, and of enforcing its transmission to India by a mandamus from the Court of Queen's Bench at Westminster. The joint power of the Court and Board is exercised in framing laws for the government of India, and in approving or annulling the enactments made in India by the local governments.

The Hudson's Bay territories in North America have been confided to a chartered body called the "Hudson's Bay Company," since 1670. To this company, in 1848, has also been confided the colonization of Vancouver's Island. The powers entrusted to this Corporation and its mode of working will be detailed when describing the territories under their rule.

The Norman or Channel Islands have their respective legislatures under the supervision of the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

All the other colonies are in charge of the Colonial Secretary, and may be divided into three classes :—1st, Those having a Representative Assembly, a Legislative Council nominated, and a Governor also appointed, by the Crown. 2nd, Those having *no* Representative Assembly, but a Legislative Council and Governor. In some colonies of this class the members of the Legislative Council are partly nominated by the Crown, and partly elected by the colonists. 3rd, Those having neither an Assembly or Council, but only a Governor, such as Gibraltar. In many instances there is also an Executive Council, composed of the principal servants of the crown. The Secretary of State for the Colonies is a cabinet minister of the highest rank, and during war he represents the military department of the government in the cabinet; he has the nomination of the Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies, who retires with him on a change of administration; he acts always in the name of the sovereign, whom he is supposed to consult previous to taking any important step; and he is bound to submit to his colleagues in the cabinet measures of importance previous to their final arrangement. Colonial charters and other questions may be referred by the Secretary of State to a department of the Privy Council for trade and plantations. Emigration and land sales in the colonies are confided to the management of three Emigration Commissioners, acting under the orders of the Secretary of State. The permanent department of the Colonial Office consists of two Under Secretaries (one of whom is law adviser on colonial subjects to the Secretary of State) of a chief, and several head clerks, gentlemen of great ability and much general experience, to each of whom is confided a group of colonies, according to their geographical position; several assistant or subordinate clerks and writers, and a librarian or registrar, to whom is entrusted the custody, arrangement, and preparation for printing of public papers.

The patronage of the Secretary of State consists in the nomination of the Governors, Lieutenant-Governors, Commanders-in-Chief, Judges, Bishops, and Church Dignitaries, Law Officers, Secretaries, Treasurers, Auditors, and civil functionaries of every description in the colonies; also the members of the Colonial Executive Council, and the Crown members of the Colonial Legislative Councils; he likewise fills up vacancies in the Emigration Commission, and such as may occur in his own office in Downing-street, where the principle of seniority is not involved.

The power of the Imperial Parliament is exercised in framing constitutions for the colonies, or laws applicable to one or more of our possessions; in the appointment of select

committees to inquire into grievances, or procure information; and in addressing the crown on any subject requiring attention.

Parliament may suspend the constitution, alter, abridge, or extend the functions of any Colonial Legislature: the House of Commons may also interfere in the internal taxation of colonies not possessing Legislative Assemblies; and, as a high court of judicature, the House of Lords may try any governor, or other functionary, impeached by the Commons.

Acts of the Colonial Legislatures, unless disallowed by the crown or parliament, within two years, become permanent laws. The crown, through its representative, sanctions the introduction of money bills into the colonial assemblies. A department of the Privy Council investigates colonial matters referred to its jurisdiction by the Secretary of State for the Colonies.

The Colonies of England were formerly under the management of a board, to whose care was confided the trade and plantations of the kingdom. On the abolition of the Plantation Board, and the office of third Secretary of State, on the economical motion of Mr. Burke, after the loss of our American possessions, the remaining colonies were transferred to the care of the Secretary of State for the Home Department. On the breaking out of the revolutionary war at the close of the last century, a Secretaryship of State for War was created, and to this department the control of the colonies was confided in 1801. Since then our colonies have been largely augmented, and it has become a question, whether the Home Administrative Department for their management in England does not require enlargement and modification.

In 1837 the writer of this work petitioned the House of Commons on the subject, pointing out the difficulty of exercising a wise and satisfactory rule over numerous and distant transmarine territories, through the medium of a single chief, who was changed with every party majority in the House of Commons,—urging, that within three years there were five different Secretaries and five Under-Secretaries of State for the colonies, whose brief duration of office rendered it next to impossible for them, however great their talents or energies, to enter fully into the various and complicated questions connected with our colonies; and suggesting, therefore, that it might be advisable to constitute a *Colonial Board* or *Council* to assist the Secretary of State,—such Board to be composed chiefly of governors, and other servants of the crown. An effective measure of this nature, which may be adopted without any additional expense to the British Exchequer, might avert the necessity of yielding to extreme and unconstitutional propositions. A Colonial Board, such as that of the Treasury, Admiralty, &c., composed of members possessed of local knowledge, as well as general ability, if permanent, would mitigate, if not altogether remove the evils now unavoidably resulting from the frequent change of the Secretary of State, whose labours are exceedingly arduous and responsible.

This is not the place to enter into any examination of possible retrenchments in Colonial Expenditure, civil or military. The whole sums voted by Parliament for the *civil* expenditure of the colonies in 1849, derived from the revenues of Great Britain, were, in round numbers,—Bahamas, £300; Bermuda, £1,000; Prince Edward Island, £2,000; Western coast of Africa, £13,000; Western Australia, £7,400; Port Essington, or Northern Australia (about to be abandoned), £1,700; New Zealand, £20,000; Heligoland, £1000.

Falkland Islands, £5,700; Hong Kong, £25,000; Labuan, £10,000; governors and others in the West Indies, £18,000; St. Helena, and retired servants of East India Company, £17,000. *Total* £125,000. Clergy in N. America, £11,500; Indian department, Canada, £14,000; Justices or Stipendiary Magistrates in the West Indies, Mauritius, &c., £41,000; Militia and Volunteers in Canada, £16,000; Emigration department, £13,000; Colonial Office, £37,000. *Total* £133,000.—Thus it will be seen that the total civil charges of the whole of our colonies defrayed out of the Home Exchequer, directly or indirectly, permanently or temporarily, is about a quarter of a million sterling.

The people of British India provide *the whole* of the civil and military charges of Hindoostan, defray annually the expenses of twenty to thirty thousand of the Queen's troops; the cost of the Court of Directors of the East India Company in Leadenhall-street, and of the India Board in Westminster. The convict expenditure in Australia and Bermuda is about £225,000 a-year, but this outlay results from vice and crime in the United Kingdom, and is not chargeable to our colonies. The total military cost for the pay and commissariat of the Queen's troops in all our colonies was, for the year 1817: pay, £1,503,059, commissariat, £670,142 = £2,174,059. Of this sum £603,718 was for the Cape of Good Hope during the Kaffre war.

In some of the colonies there are local corps, as in the West Indies, Ceylon, and Malta. There are militia corps in several of our settlements; those of our N. American Colonies comprise 339,139 men.

It is deserving of consideration, with regard to our military expenditure in the colonies, that England is obliged to maintain a standing army; which, considering the extent of the standing armies of all European nations, it is a grave question, whether it would be prudent in us materially to reduce.

But, as the constitutional jealousy of a free country objects to the presence of a soldiery which might be made the instruments for wielding despotic power, it is well that those troops should be scattered in different colonies, inured to privation, seasoned in various climates, and ready on any emergency for effective service.

A similar remark applies to the Royal Navy, which our insular position and wide extended commerce requires to be maintained in considerable force. The possession of strongholds and havens in every part of the globe enables us to dispense with the large amount of naval strength that would otherwise be requisite; and our seamen are rendered perfect, and retained in a high state of discipline by being stationed for three or four years on the shores of the distant colonies, in various climates, and amidst many dangers, yet always among their own countrymen, and losing nothing therefore of their nationality.

The shipping registered as sailing-vessels, in the British Colonies in N. America, Australia, Africa, and the West Indies, amounts to half a million tons, and the steam-vessels to sixteen thousand tons. The British shipping cleared out of the ports of the United Kingdom for the British possessions alone, in 1847, amounted to more than *two million tons*. Steam communication has now brought the most distant parts of the empire into close, frequent, and regular intercourse. Mails and passengers arrive in ten days from our North American Colonies, in twenty from the West Indies, in thirty from the East Indies, in fifty from China; and, according to a new line, they will arrive in sixty days from Australia. This diminution of time or distance between the parent state and

her possessions will greatly tend to consolidate the empire. Lord Brougham, in his able work on "Colonial Policy," has well described the beneficial effects of frequent international communication in the following words:—"The only constant, regular, and extensive intercourse, arising from the circulation of inhabitants, is that which is carried on between the different provinces of the same empire, either contiguous or remote—between the country and the towns—the provinces, or provincial towns, and the capital—the districts of industry and self-denial, and the seats of opulence and pleasure—the mother country and her colonies. This intercourse and circulation tends, more than any other thing, to preserve the connexion of the different component parts of a great and scattered empire, and to cement the whole mass."

The colonies yield us a *certain* supply of necessities and luxuries which no foreign war or hostile tariffs can lessen. Of 7,000,000 cwt. of sugar imported, our colonies furnish 5,500,000. They send us also 35,000,000 lbs. of coffee, 4,000,000 lbs. of cocoa, 7,000,000 gallons of rum, 1,000,000 lbs. of cinnamon, 6,000,000 lbs. of pepper, 2,000,000 gallons of vegetable oils, 8,000,000 lbs. Indigo, 40,000,000 lbs. of wool (sheep), 100,000,000 lbs. of cotton wool, 1,000,000 lbs. of silk, 1,000,000 cwt. of rice, 1,000,000 loads of timber; also corn, provisions, flax, hemp, hides, skins, saltpetre, gums, drugs, dyes, metals, &c., all capable of indefinite increase. In fish alone Newfoundland has contributed to the empire to the value of about £200,000,000, a richer wealth than the South American mines yielded to Spain.

The exports of manufactured articles from the United Kingdom to the colonies nearly equals our whole exports of similar articles to every part of the globe. Mr. Disraeli stated in Parliament, on July 2, 1849, that "in the article of *calicoes alone* there has been an export to the British Colonies, from 1831 to 1846, of 313,000,000 yards more than to all the rest of the world:" and it must be remembered, that a colonial trade is even more valuable than a home trade, because not only are the two profits on buying and selling obtained by the citizens of the same empire, but a large and valuable amount of shipping is employed.

British India and Ceylon consume annually British and Irish produce and manufactures of the value of £6,000,000; N. American colonies, £4,500,000; West Indies, £3,500,000; Australian Colonies, £2,000,000; the African settlements more than £2,000,000; the European and other settlements, require for use or sale, about £2,000,000. Our colonial export trade therefore amounts to £20,000,000 a year, and is annually increasing. This commerce, in a national point of view, is double the value of an equal amount of foreign commerce, for the reasons above stated; namely, that the whole profits thereon accrue to the empire, and are in no way divided with foreign states.

Much of our foreign trade may be, and indeed often is, carried on at a loss. When goods accumulate in the warehouses of our great hives of industry, in Lancashire and Yorkshire, they must be sold at any sacrifice; and the difference between the cost and sale price is made up out of the profits on the home and colonial trade. The extent of foreign trade is not an infallible criterion either of individual or national wealth. It is often difficult for exporters to realize in cash, or otherwise, the value of goods sent to a foreign country; but in our colonies goods are consigned to corresponding firms;

or, there are English courts of law there for the ready recovery of debts. Moreover the Metropolitan-Colonial Banks established in London, since 1834, such as the "Australian," "British North American," "Colonial W. I.," "Oriental," "Ceylon," "Ionian," &c., render the remittance of money between England and her colonies as easy and secure as between London and Liverpool. The increasing value of our Colonies is thus shown by T. F. Elliot, Esq., Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies:—

	A.D.	Population.	Imports.	Exports.	Value of Imports per head.	Value of Exports per head.
Old American Colonies (in 1773)	. .	2,312,000	£1,000,000	£1,800,000	£0 8 8 . .	£0 15 6
Australian Colonies (in 1845)	. .	283,873	£2,070,000	£2,189,000	£7 5 10 . .	£7 14 3

The duties levied in foreign countries on British produce and manufactures, vary from ten to *fifty* per cent.; but in New South Wales, South Australia, Van Diemen's Land, New Zealand, Ceylon, Mauritius, Cape of Good Hope, Sierra Leone, &c., British manufactures of woollen, cotton, and silk are received as *free of all duties* as if transmitted from one part of the United Kingdom to another. In our North American Colonies, the duty on British manufactures is 5 to 7, in the West Indies 3 to 4, and in British India but 3 per cent. The consumption of British produce and manufactures in our colonial possessions, ranges from two to ten pounds sterling per head annually; in the United States of America, our best foreign customers, the average is under ten shillings a head annually. It has been said that colonies must become useless as commercial markets under what is termed "Free Trade." But it may also be urged that "free imports" do not constitute free trade;—that the United States and European nations do not admit British and Colonial produce and manufactures on the *same terms* as England admits their products into the United Kingdom and its dependencies;—that since the adoption of our tariff of free imports in 1846–7, no nation has entered into reciprocal arrangements,—in some instances foreign tariffs have been increased, and that but for the revolutionary state of Continental Europe during 1848 and 1849, by which the manufactures and commerce of the revolutionary countries have been suspended or deranged, it may be doubted whether the newly-adopted system could have been maintained. An European war, the blockade of important rivers, such as the Elbe or Scheldt, the occupation of the territory of a commercial ally, as that of Mexico by the United States, all tend to the diminution of our precarious foreign trade; but a colonial traffic is always within our own control, both for the consumption of British manufactures and for the supply of food and of raw products; and the time is probably not far distant when England and her maritime dependencies will be included in one commercial league, with as perfect freedom of trade as if no ocean rolled between them.

The imperious expression of Napoleon when seeking the destruction of England, and unable to accomplish it by the means in his possession, was—"I *must have ships, colonies, and commerce!*" The sagacious Talleyrand also, when urging France to acquire and maintain colonies as the best mode of sustaining a fleet which might "reach the vitals of England," declared, that colonies were the sheet anchor of Britain—the support of her navy—the fortress of her power: "*Render these useless,*" said Talleyrand, "*or deprive her of them, and you break down her last wall—you fill up her last moat.*" "Whatever," said Talleyrand, "gives colonies to France, supplies her with ships and

sailors, manufactures, and husbandmen. Victories by land can only give her mutinous subjects, who, instead of augmenting the national force by their riches or numbers, contribute only to disperse or enfeeble that force; but the growth of colonies supplies her with zealous citizens, and the increase of real wealth and effective numbers is the certain consequence."

Napoleon, in one of his prophetic moments at St. Helena, truly remarked, "England should look wholly to commerce and to naval affairs; she never can be a continental power, and in the attempt must be ruined: let her maintain the empire of the seas, and she may send her ambassadors to the courts of Europe, and demand what she pleases."

There are other forcible reasons which enhance the value of the Colonies; especially the existing density in England of four hundred mouths on each square mile of arable surface, and a population still further increasing in the United Kingdom at the rate of nearly a mouth every minute, or upwards of one thousand a day beyond the deaths, which makes emigration a matter of state policy as well as individual necessity, if we would avert the evils of a social or servile war, which is inevitably caused by an excess of inhabitants in any country.

If England had no foreign possessions or waste lands, the extrusion of the excessive population might be the sole object, even if the surplus went to enrich and strengthen a rival state; but when there are millions of acres ready for the plough in different parts of the empire, it seems suicidal to transfer, or suffer to be transferred, to another nation, the blood and bone of our own. Of the two million emigrants who have quitted the United Kingdom within the last twenty-four years, four-fifths have strengthened the power and added to the wealth of the United States of America. When emigration is left to itself, men of small capital, the bold and the energetic, are the first to quit their native home; society thus becomes weakened, and less able to bear with accumulating difficulties; the pressure on the labour market, which alone required relief, is increased by the departure of the employers of labour; capital, unable to find secure and profitable investment at home, seeks its interest in foreign lands; the mysterious link which unites national with individual weal is destroyed; a democratic spirit looks to political changes for social amelioration; and the whole frame-work of society becomes unhinged. A state paper addressed by Lord Bacon to James I. in 1606, contains reasons for emigration, and for the planting of new settlements, which well deserve consideration in the present day. "An effect of peace in fruitful kingdoms where the stock of people receiving no consumption nor diminution by war doth continually multiply and increase, must, in the end, be a surcharge or overflow of people more than the territories can well maintain, which many times insinuating a general necessity and want of means into all estates, doth turn external peace into internal troubles and seditions. Now what an excellent diversion of this inconvenience is ministered to your Majesty in this plantation of Ireland (colonies), wherein so many families may receive sustentation and fortune, and the discharge of them out of England and Scotland may prevent many seeds of future perturbation; so that it is as if a man were troubled for the avoidance of water from the places where he had built his house, and afterwards should advise with himself to cast those floods, pools, or streams for pleasure, provision, or use. So shall your Majesty in this work have a double commodity in the avoidance of people here, and in making use of them there."

Our Colonies offer a noble field for British industry. They could sustain with ease an addition of one hundred million to their present population. In the Canadas there are not *six* individuals to each square mile of area, in Australasia not *three*, in Southern Africa not *two*. Wordsworth's beautiful lines are peculiarly appropriate at the present time :—

“ As the element of air affords
 An easy passage to the industrious bees,
 Fraught with their burdens; and a way as smooth
 For those ordained to take their sounding flight
 From the thronged hive, and settle where they list—
 In fresh abodes their labour to renew :
 So the wide waters open to the power,
 The will, the interests, and appointed needs
 Of Britain, do invite her to cast off
 Her swarms; and, in succession, send them forth,
 Bound to establish new communities
 On every shore whose aspect favours hope,
 Or bold adventure; promising to skill
 And perseverance their deserved reward.
 Change, wide and deep, and silently performed,
 This land shall witness; and, as days roll on,
 Earth's universal frame shall feel the effect,
 Even to the smallest habitable rock
 Beaten by lonely billows, hear the songs
 Of harmonized society, and bloom
 With civil arts that send their fragrance forth,
 A grateful tribute to all-ruling Heaven.—*Book IX. Excursions.*

From seven to eight million sterling are now annually expended in the United Kingdom in the support of two million paupers; if a portion of that sum were appropriated towards the conveyance of a part of the able-bodied poor to the less populated parts of the empire, a grievous burthen, which is now weighing down the energies of the country, would be converted into a source of wealth and strength to the nation; unprofitable consumers would become producers of food and other exchangeable articles, demanding in return British manufactures, and the waste lands of the Crown would become sources of national and individual prosperity. Two hundred million sterling have been levied by law and expended for the relief of the poor in England and Wales, between the years 1815 and 1849. The sum which it costs to maintain a pauper in England would convey him to another part of the Empire, where he might in the same space of time be a useful consumer instead of a waster of capital.

Every tree felled, every acre cultivated, in our Colonies, furnishes additional employment for the looms, shipping, and commerce of England; and our rich possessions in the East and West Indies are capable of furnishing an inexhaustible supply of tropical and other products, so much in demand throughout Europe and America. By judiciously directing the stream of emigration where it may fertilize our own waste lands, we not only provide for the immediate exigencies of a superabundant population, but we preserve to ourselves the main element of national strength, and thus render it conducive to the permanent welfare of the Empire.

China, Japan, Corea, Cochin China, and Siam—containing nearly one-half the population of the globe, are scarcely yet known to us; and our possessions in the Pacific and Indian Oceans may be the means of opening the door for extensive intercourse with those vast regions.

Again, the Colonies afford a wide sphere of action for enterprising or restless spirits, who, with good education but limited means, are desirous of improving their condition. How many young men of good family, and of industrious habits, have found honourable and lucrative employment in the East and West Indies, North America, Australia, &c. The East Indian and Colonial Civil Services contain many able and distinguished servants of the crown, whose minds, expanded by their position, fit them for the government of an empire; and the Anglo-Indian army of two hundred thousand men is commanded by military officers whose science, skill, and prowess is unsurpassed by that of any other army in the world.

There are few counties in the United Kingdom in whose soil wealth acquired in the colonies has not been invested. British India alone, in payment of military, civil, and other charges, pensions, &c., has remitted to England in bullion and produce at least three millions sterling per annum for the last fifty years, making the enormous sum of £150,000,000. Sir Charles Forbes, whose name is revered at home, and almost worshipped in India by the affectionate and grateful people of that vast country, as the just, generous, and unswerving advocate of their interests, declared in Parliament, when deploring the lamentable inattention too generally evinced to their welfare, and the absence of a policy conciliatory to their feelings, that "*the wealth which England has obtained from the natives of India would, at compound interest, pay off the National Debt!*" The balance of trade, the private fortunes made abroad, and the savings of civil and military men, are, generally speaking, spent "at home."

By means of her colonies England is enabled to assume a high national position; and should, unfortunately, a general European war arise, she is independent of every foreign country for the supply of the necessaries or luxuries of life, or for the raw materials required for her manufactures.

In estimating the political value of our colonies, it must not be forgotten that their possession gives an enlarged tone even to the minds of those who have never quitted the shores of Britain. Mere islanders, whose views and thoughts are limited to the narrow territory in which they dwell, acquire contracted ideas, unsuited to the policy of a great nation; but England exists in each quarter of the globe—her people become familiarized with the distant regions of the earth, and a national spirit is fostered, eminently conducive to the creation and preservation of a vast empire.

Throughout the greater part of the globe a stupendous moral, as well as political, revolution is working for some great end. England is not only the heart of a mighty empire, whose branches and roots extend to the uttermost parts of the earth, she is also the "nursing mother" of nations yet in their infancy, and on her righteous fulfilment of this responsible duty, depends alike their future welfare and her own. If true to her trust, she may, under Divine Providence, be the instrument of establishing peace—extending civilization—and disseminating the inestimable blessings of Christianity throughout the world.

R. M. MARTIN.

THE BRITISH COLONIES.

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

BOOK I.—EASTERN AND WESTERN CANADA.

CHAPTER I.—HISTORY.

THE British dominions in North America comprise an area of 4,000,000 square miles: their extreme length between east and west, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, is 3,000 miles; and from north to south, 2,000 miles. The boundaries of this vast region are, on the *north* the Arctic Ocean and the adjacent seas and islands, many of them yet unexplored; on the *north-west*, Russian America; on the *west*, the Pacific Ocean; on the *south*, the territories of the United States; and on the *east*, the Atlantic Ocean.

The southern boundary is defined (see map) by an irregular line drawn from the extreme end of Vancouver's Island, extending along the parallel of 49° N. to the head of Lake Superior, thence through the centre of that lake and the centres of Lakes Huron, St. Clair, Erie, the Falls of Niagara, and Lake Ontario, to St. Regis on the St. Lawrence, 60 miles S. W. of Montreal, thence along the parallel of 45° N. to some Highlands, which divide the waters that flow into the Atlantic from those that flow into the St. Lawrence; and from thence to the source of St. Croix, and to the mouth of that river in Passamaquoddy Bay in the Gulf of Fundy. The whole country lies between the parallels of $41^{\circ} 47'$ and 78° or 80° N., and the meridians 52° and 141° W.

The British territory is divided into the provinces or districts known as the Canadas, Eastern and Western, or Upper and Lower; New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland, the Coast of Labrador, the Hudson's Bay Ter-

ritories, Vancouver's Island, Queen Charlotte's Island, and other islands and districts west of the Rocky Mountains, each of which will be separately described.

The statements of the Norwegians, or Danes, having visited the coast of America in the tenth and eleventh centuries, and colonized "*Vinland*," or New England, are too vague and unsatisfactory, to deprive Columbus of the honour of having been the first discoverer of the western hemisphere on the 11th of October, 1492. But the explorations of this truly great man were restricted to the West India Islands and a portion of the middle and southern part of the adjacent continent, which received its name from Amerigo Vespucci, who, in 1499, visited some parts of the coast. The discoverer of the northern portion of the continent of America was Giovanni Gaboto, generally called John Cabot, a Venetian, in the service of Henry VII. of England, who, with his three sons, sailed from Bristol in May 1497, having under his command two caravels and five ships laden with goods for traffic, supplied by the merchants of London. Cabot sailed to the westward in the expectation of reaching "*Cathay*," or China; but to his surprise, on the 24th of June, 1497, made the coast of America, discovered Newfoundland, sailed as far N. as $67^{\circ} 30'$, in hope of finding a passage to the Pacific; then steered to the southward, and entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence in search of a supposed north-west passage. After taking possession of the country in the name of,

England, Cabot returned in August, 1497, with ten natives (whom he brought from Newfoundland or Prince Edward Island), and was knighted by the king. Sir John Cabot made three subsequent voyages, but no settlement then took place on this part of the North American continent; the tide of European adventure being directed to Mexico and Peru by the Spaniards.

In 1500 Gaspar Cortereal, a Portuguese captain, visited the north coast of America, followed the track of Sir John Cabot, and kidnapped several of the Indians or natives, whom he sold as slaves. In 1502 Hugh Elliot and Thomas Ashurst, English merchants, were authorized by Henry VII. to establish colonies in the countries discovered by Cabot; but they do not appear to have availed themselves of this permission. In 1518 Baron de Lery, a Frenchman, landed cattle at Isle du Sable, and ineffectually attempted to form a settlement at Canseau. In 1525 Giovanni Verrazano, a Florentine, and Gomez, a Spaniard, in an expedition fitted out by Francis the First, coasted from Newfoundland to Florida, landed in Nova Scotia, proceeded as far as 50° N., and, regardless of the prior claim of England, took formal possession of the country for his royal master, under the title of "*La Nouvelle France*." Verrazano, like Cabot, returned without gold or silver, was coldly received, and died in obscurity. Henry VIII. in 1527 fitted out an expedition to discover a north-west passage to the East Indies: one of the ships was lost, and no settlement was made.

The valuable fisheries on the banks of Newfoundland had early attracted the attention of European nations, and in 1517 there were about fifty vessels under the English, French, Spanish, and Portuguese flag engaged in the fisheries. In 1534 Jacques Cartier, a navigator who had been fishing on the banks of Newfoundland, received a commission from Francis the First; sailed with two vessels of 60 tons each from St. Maloes, April 20; arrived at Newfoundland, May 10; remained there ten days, then sailed to the northward; subsequently took a southerly course, passed through the Straits of Bellisle, traversed the Gulf of St. Lawrence; on the 24th of July erected a cross surmounted by a *fleur-de-lys*, and on the 25th of July sailed for France, taking with him two Indians.

Cartier was well received, and sent by his sovereign in the ensuing year to the St. Lawrence, (so called on account of its dis-

covery on the day of the festival of that saint) with three larger vessels, and accompanied by a number of young gentlemen as adventurers. The explorers entered the river St. Lawrence in August, and anchored off Quebec, then called Stadacona, and the abode of an Indian chief, named Donnacona. Cartier here quitted his ships and proceeded up the river in boats. On the 3rd of October, he reached an island, which he named *Mont Royal* (now Montreal), returned to his ships, where he wintered, called the coast St. Croix, and in 1536 seized Donnacona, and two other chiefs, and conveyed them with eight natives to France, where they all died. The precious metals not having been discovered, the French sovereign made no further efforts to occupy the country until 1541, when an expedition, at the renewed entreaties of Cartier, was sent out to colonize La Nouvelle France, or Canada, so called from the Iroquois word *Kanata*, signifying a collection of huts, which the early discoverers mistook for the native name of the country. Francis I. gave the command of the expedition to François de la Roque, Siegneur de Roberval, who was appointed the viceroy of his sovereign in Canada, Hochelaga (Montreal), &c. In July, 1542, the viceroy arrived in Canada, built a fort about four leagues above the Isle of Orleans, but the destructive effects of scurvy which appears to have afflicted all the early colonists, and the deadly hostility of the Indians, in consequence of the kidnapping of Donnacona and other Indian chiefs in 1536, prevented any permanent settlement. Roberval was recalled by Francis I. to assist in the war against Charles V., and Jacques Cartier, after an unsuccessful attempt to form a settlement at St. Croix, returned ruined in health and fortune to France, where he soon died.

After the death of Francis I., Roberval, accompanied by his brother Achille and a numerous train of enterprising volunteers, embarked for Canada in 1549, but having never been heard of since, are supposed to have perished at sea. The idea of discovering a north-west passage to the Pacific Ocean, still filled the minds of the people of Europe; in 1575 Davis explored the Straits which bear his name, and in 1576, queen Elizabeth, ever bent on taking the lead of every other nation, sent out Martin Frobisher, with three ships, on a voyage of exploration. Frobisher discovered the Straits bearing his name, and finding some *mundic*

or copper pyrites, which he mistook for gold, he returned with a large quantity to England. In the ensuing year Frobisher was despatched by some merchants with three vessels to explore the coast of Labrador and Greenland, with a view to the discovery of a north-west passage. He returned, however, with only 200 tons of the supposed gold ore, and a man, woman, and child, of the Indian race.

In 1578, the expectation of discovering extensive gold regions, induced the merchants of England again to send forth Frobisher, with fifteen vessels. The expedition being attended with as little success as the preceding one, caused the ruin of many adventurers, who received, as before, copper ore, instead of gold.

In 1579, queen Elizabeth, desirous of obtaining some advantage from the discoveries of Cabot, granted to Sir Humphrey Gilbert, half-brother to Sir Walter Raleigh a patent for "the discovering or occupying and peopling such remote, heathen, and barbarous countries as were not actually possessed by any Christian people." Sir Humphrey is described by Haliburton, as "a man of prepossessing manners, commanding esteem and veneration at first sight;" he was celebrated for courage and prudence, genius and learning, eloquence and patriotism, and Elizabeth was so pleased with his conduct that her majesty presented him, as a mark of peculiar favour, an emblematic jewel, consisting of a small gold anchor with a large pearl at the peak, which Sir Humphrey ever after wore at his breast. Many friends from personal attachment agreed to join him, but before the time of departure withdrew from their engagements. Undeterred by disappointments, he sailed with several vessels, one of which foundered at sea and compelled the return to England of the expedition, where misfortune pressed hard upon the gallant adventurer. To assist him in again proceeding to sea, Sir Humphrey granted the lands he was to occupy in America, and then sold his estate in England, by which he was enabled to sail from Plymouth on the 11th June, 1583, with five ships and 250 men. On the 11th July, the fleet arrived off Newfoundland, and on Monday, August 5, proceeded in state to take formal possession of the island, in the presence of the masters and merchants of 36 vessels of different nations, then in the harbour of St. John's. A tent was pitched on shore, the commission of the

queen of England was read in different languages, a turf and twig were then delivered to him, and sir Gilbert declared the island of Newfoundland to belong to his sovereign; and to the dominions of the crown of England it has ever since been attached. Obedience having been promised by the people with loud acclamations, a pillar, with a plate of lead and the arms of the queen engraved thereon, was erected; a tax levied on all ships, and three laws promulgated for the colony: 1st, for the celebration of public worship, according to the Church of England ritual; 2nd, declaring that anything which might be attempted prejudicial to the queen of England was, according to the laws of England, treason; and 3rd, that the uttering of words to the dishonour of her majesty was to be punished with the loss of ears and confiscation of property. On the 20th August, Sir Humphrey sailed from St. John's, with the *Squirrel*, *Delight*, and *Hind*, for Sable Island, to search for swine, and cattle, said to have been landed there thirty years previous. The *Delight* was lost on a sand-bank, and no cattle being procurable, Sir Humphrey determined on proceeding to England, but the *Squirrel*, which he commanded in person, foundered in a storm, and all on board (above 100 persons) perished. Sir John Gilbert, brother to Sir Humphrey, at an advanced age, proceeded with sir John Popham to fit out a fleet for the revival of his brother's claim, and in 1607 they wintered on a small island in the Kenebec river (state of Maine), where distress and cold killed sir John Gilbert, and his followers returned to England.

France made renewed efforts for the acquisition of territory in this part of the North American continent, and in 1598 Henry IV. sent out the marquis de la Roche with a number of convicts, forty of whom he landed on Sable island, and proceeded to explore the adjacent coasts. But unfavourable weather compelled the marquis to return to France, without revisiting Sable island, where the convicts would have perished but for a French ship being wrecked there, which contained provisions for their sustenance, until they could kill seals, and catch fish for their support. Seven years after the king of France sent a vessel to look after his subjects; twelve only were found alive, whose miserable condition induced the king to pardon them on their arrival in France.

In 1600 Henry IV. granted an exclusive trade with Canada, and other privileges to M.

Chauvin, a naval officer, who associated with himself M. Pontgrave, a merchant who had made several profitable trading voyages for furs, to the Saguenay river, and other places in the St. Lawrence. On the death of Chauvin in 1603, Sieur de Monts, a Calvinist, received from Henry IV. a further patent, conferring on him the exclusive trade and government of all the territories between 40° and 54° N. lat., totally regardless of the prior claims of England. De Monts fitted out an armament to carry on the fur trade, under Pontgrave and an enterprising naval officer, named Samuel Champlain, which sailed up the St. Lawrence in 1603, as far as Sault St. Louis. Trading posts were established at different places; Acadia, or Nova Scotia, was visited; and on the 3rd July, 1608, Samuel Champlain founded Quebec as the future capital of New France.

The French unhappily took part in the contests of the Iroquois, or Five Nations, with the Algonquins, who, supplied with fire-arms by Champlain, were enabled to carry on a destructive contest, which tended so rapidly to depopulate the country, that in 1622 Quebec did not contain fifty persons. The first child born of French parents in Quebec, was the son of Abraham Martin and Margaret L'Anglois, who was christened Eustache, on the 24th October, 1621.

To remedy the distressed condition of the colony, which had heretofore been confided to the charge of two or three individuals, Canada was transferred to an association, called the "*Company of One Hundred Partners*," composed of clergy and laity, and headed by the celebrated cardinal Richelieu, whose leading principles were, in the *first* place, the conversion of the heathens to christianity, and in the *second*, the extension of the fur trade and commerce generally, and the discovery of a route to the Pacific Ocean, and to China through the great rivers and lakes of La Nouvelle France.

The king, on the 19th April, 1627, granted Canada to the company, with extensive privileges as a feudal seignory, to be acknowledged by the presentation of a crown of gold, of eight marks weight, on the accession of every sovereign to the throne. With the right of soil, a monopoly of trade was granted; but French subjects were permitted the free exercise of the whale and cod fisheries on the coast, and such colonists as were not servants of the company, might trade with the Indians for peltries (skins) provided they brought all beaver

skins to the factors of the company, who were compelled to purchase them at 40 sous a piece. A Jesuit corps was supported by the company, and "Protestants, and other heretics and Jews," were rigidly excluded from the colony.

The company engaged to send over to La Nouvelle France, in the following year (1628) two or three hundred workmen of all kinds, and before 1643 to augment the number of French inhabitants to 16,000; to lodge, maintain, and find the emigrants in all necessities for three years,—then to make an equal distribution among them of all cleared lands, and to furnish them with seed according to the wants of each family. In every district three priests were to be supplied by the company, with all necessities both for their persons and missions for fifteen years, after which cleared lands were to be assigned for their maintenance. The territorial rights of the company extended over Canada, and part of Florida; the company might erect fortifications, cast cannon, and make all sorts of arms, grant lands, annex titles and rights, but the creation of duchies, marquisesates, earldoms, and baronies, required royal letters of confirmation. The king granted the company two ships of war, of two or three hundred tons each, to be victualled by the company. The ships were to be paid for, if within the first ten years the company did not convey 1,500 French of both sexes to Canada, and the charter was to be void, if within the last five years an equal number was not conveyed to the colony.

A subsequent ordonnance enlarged the privileges of the company: merchandise manufactured in Canada, was, on importation into France, to pay no duty for fifteen years; natives of the colonies were to be deemed citizens of old France: tradesmen or mechanics, after being employed six years by the company, were, on their return to France, to be privileged to carry on their business in Paris, or elsewhere; ecclesiastics, noblemen, and others, might associate with the company, without derogation of honour, and twelve of the partners of the company were to be created nobles by the king.

These arrangements were frustrated by David Kirtek, a French Calvinist, who sought refuge in England from religious persecution, fitted out an English armament in 1627, and captured eighteen French transports, with 135 pieces of ordnance, destined for Quebec and other places belonging to

the company. Next year Kirtek captured Port Royal, in Acadia (Nova Scotia), visited Tadoussac, destroyed the cattle, and plundered the houses at Cape Tourmente, and proceeded to Gaspé bay, where he met M. de Roquemont, one of the hundred partners, commanding a squadron of vessels freighted with French emigrants, and filled with provisions. Kirtek provoked Roquemont to fight; the French were defeated, and the whole fleet captured. The colonists at Quebec suffered greatly by this disaster, and their distress was increased by the shipwreck, on the coast of Nova Scotia, of a vessel laden with provisions for their relief. Kirtek aided by some other English vessels commanded by his two brothers, proceeded up the St. Lawrence, and on the 29th July, 1629, took possession of Quebec, whose famishing inhabitants were then existing on five ounces of bread a day.

The value of the conquest was at the time but little appreciated, the attention of England being directed to the more southern part of the continent of America; the French opened a negotiation; peace was restored, and by the treaty of St. Germain, in 1632, Charles I. relinquished to Louis XIII. the right which England had always claimed, by reason of the discovery of Cabot, to this portion of America; upon which Canada, Acadia (Nova Scotia), and Isle Royal (Cape Breton), were re-occupied by the French, between whom, and the English in the adjacent states, rivalry and internecine hostilities were frequent, notwithstanding the peaceable relations existing between the home governments.

In 1644 Montreal was ceded to the religious order entitled the St. Sulpicians of Paris; the monopoly of the company of a hundred partners gradually broke down, colonization was extended by a growing attention to agriculture taking the place of the almost exclusive consideration heretofore given to the fur trade, and in 1663 the company having become obnoxious, by reason of their arbitrary proceedings, the king of France abolished the company, and converted Canada into a royal government. M. de Méry was appointed governor, and proceeded from France to Quebec, with 400 regular troops, 100 families as settlers, horses, cattle, and implements of agriculture. The administration of the colony was changed from an ecclesiastical mission to a secular government by the great Colbert, and under the royal jurisdiction, the governor, a king's

commissioner, an apostolical vicar, and four other gentlemen, were formed into a sovereign council, to which was entrusted the jurisdiction of all causes civil and criminal, according to the laws and ordinances of France and the practice of the parliament of Paris, the regulation of commerce, and the expenditure of the public monies. The emigration of French settlers was promoted by every possible means, and a martial spirit was imparted to the population by the location in the colony of the disbanded soldiers of the Carrignan regiment (1000 strong), and of other troops, whose officers became the principal seigneurs on condition of their making cessions under the feudal tenure to the soldiers and other inhabitants.

Louis XIV., aided by the politic Colbert, desirous of establishing Frenchmen in every part of the globe, founded a *West India Company*, with powers and privileges somewhat similar to those granted to the English *East India Company*. The regions recited in the patent of the West India Company, as the fields for operation, were the country from the river Amazon to the Orinoco, the Antilles, Canada, L'Acadia, both continent and islands from the north of Canada to Virginia and Florida; also the coast of Africa, from Cape Verd to the Cape of Good Hope, "so far as the said company may be able to penetrate, whether the said countries may now appertain to France, as being or having been occupied by Frenchmen, or in so far as the said company shall establish itself by exterminating or conquering the natives or colonists of such European nations as are not our allies." Louis XIV. agreed to advance one-fourth of the whole stock without interest for four years, subject to a proportion of all losses which might be incurred during that period. The West India Company was to enjoy a monopoly of the territories and trade, and an exclusive navigation, conceded for forty years, and to receive a bounty of thirty livres on every ton of goods exported from France. The company was authorized to levy war against the Indians or foreign colonies in case of insult; to build forts, raise and maintain troops, grant lands, commute seigniorial dues, and it was bound to carry out a sufficient number of priests and to build churches and houses for their accommodation. All colonists and converts professing the Romish faith were declared to be entitled to the same rights in France and in the colonies as if they had been born and resided within the kingdom.

The arbitrary proceedings of this company soon excited general dissatisfaction in Canada, and on the 8th April 1666, a royal arret of the council of state granted to the Canadians the trade in furs, subject to an allowance of one-fourth of all beaver skins, and one-tenth of all buffalo skins, and the total reservation to the company of the trade of Tadoussac, at the mouth of the Saguenay river.

The colony was kept in continual alarm by the war waged by the Canadians against the Mohawk Indians, who were in alliance with the English colonists at New York. For purposes of military defence, the colonists by a royal edict were directed to concentrate their settlements, and no lands were permitted to be cleared or cultivated but such as were contiguous to each other: this accounts for the peculiar military style of the French Canadian townships. The wars with the Indians were carried on with great barbarism on both sides. In an incursion made by the marquis de Tracey into an Iroquois settlement, the Indians saved themselves by flight; but the old men, women, and children were slaughtered and a *Te Deum* thereon celebrated in the cathedral of Quebec. On another occasion a French army, consisting of 28 companies of regular troops and the whole militia of the colony, marched 700 miles in the midst of winter, from Quebec into the Mohawk territory for the purpose of utterly extirpating the Indians. As usual the Indian warriors escaped, but the sachems (old men), women, and children, were massacred. For every human scalp delivered into the war department a sum of forty livres was paid.

The Canadians, however, not unfrequently experienced the revengeful fury of the Indians. Charlevoix in his history of La Nouvelle France, when describing the atrocities committed by the Indians, says—"Ils ouvrirent le sein des femmes enceintes pour en arracher le fruit qu'elles portoient; ils mirent des enfans tout vivant a la broche et contraignerent les mères de les tourner pour les fair rotir." The colonists, frequently taken by surprise, had their houses, cattle, and crops destroyed, and thousands of the French were slain. The French, reinforced from Europe, sent a strong force in February, 1690, who massacred the greater part of the unresisting inhabitants of Shenectady. According to Colden (page 79) the Indians whom the French took prisoners at Shenectady, were cut into pieces, and boiled to

make soup for the Indian allies who accompanied the French!

The contests of the British and French colonists were carried on through their respective Indian allies, and for several years the tide of success was in favour of the French, as the British were by nature not so well adapted for conciliating the natives. The hostilities waged by the Indians were destructive to the scattered colonists: setting little value on life, they fought with desperation, and gave no quarter; protected by the natural fastnesses of their country, they chose their own time for action, and when they had enclosed their enemies in a defile, or surprised them amidst the intricacies of the forest, the war-whoop of the victor, and the death-shriek of the vanquished, were simultaneously heard, and while the bodies of the slain served for food to the savage, the scalped head of the white man was a trophy of glory, and a booty of no inconsiderable value to its possessor.

In 1683, the Mississippi, which had been previously visited by the French missionaries from Montreal (in 1673), and by fur hunters from Quebec, under the guidance of the Indians, was navigated to the sea by M. de la Salle; and all the country watered by that vast river claimed for France under the title of *Louisiana*, in honour of Louis XIV.

The British colonists in Albany became alarmed at the success and increasing strength of the French, not only in Nova Scotia, where hostilities were almost incessant with the English at Massachusetts, but also by their occupation of the two great rivers, the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi, and their successful prosecution of the fur trade and fisheries, then deemed the chief source of wealth in North America. The population of Canada, which in 1671 did not exceed 8,000, including the converted Indians, had rapidly increased; and the intermarriages of Frenchmen with the natives, enabled the government of Quebec to command at all times, a large force of Indian warriors. As an illustration, one instance may be noted: the baron de St. Castine, formerly an officer of the Carrignan regiment, of prepossessing appearance and noble spirit, took up his abode with the Indians, learned their language, adopted their customs, married an Indian wife, and lived with them for twenty years. The Indians made the baron their chief, they looked upon him as a tutelar deity, and during his abode with them, were ready to devote their lives to his

service. The skins and furs collected in hunting were brought to him by the savages in large quantities, and he supplied them in return with European goods. The baron accumulated a large fortune, gave good dowries to his daughters by the Indian wife, whom he married to Frenchmen, and was always ready with a chosen band of warriors to accompany the troops of the governor-general of Canada, against the British and their Indian allies.

The French, feeling more secure in their dominions, pushed forward their outposts with vigour, by means of the fur traders, who established fairs in the different towns, especially at Montreal, to enable the Indians periodically to dispose of their furs. This trade was open to all the colonists, subject to a contribution of one-fourth of the beaver, and one-tenth of the buffalo skins, to the king of France, which right his majesty sold to certain patentees or farmers-general. The trade at the distant posts, whence the Indians could not bring their furs, was licensed and granted as a bounty to old officers, or to the poor gentry of the colony, and these licences were sold for 600 crowns, to inland merchants or traders, who were thus authorised to convey merchandise into the interior of the country for barter; and the purchaser of the licence was bound to employ two canoes, with crews of six men each, who were entitled to provisions and clothing, and who shared legally in the returns of the adventure, after the cost of licence and merchandise, and a profit of 400 per cent. had been reimbursed to the merchant. The extent of trade attached to each licence, was merchandise to the amount of 1,000 crowns, which the seller of the licence had the right of furnishing, at an advance of 15 per cent. on the market price. A successful adventure gave the merchant who bought the licence, 400 per cent. profit on his outlay, and 600 crowns to each of the canoe-men—hence, a spirit of adventure arose; the canoe-men, or voyageurs, looked to the fur trade as a means of obtaining money to clear and stock a farm, though it was too frequently dissipated in riot or debauchery; a bold and hardy race of colonists was trained to danger, accustomed to the forests, familiarised with long and intricate inland navigation, and intimately associated with the Indians, with whom they frequently co-operated in their attacks on the British settlements. In this desultory warfare the Canadian militia were always desirous of ac-

companying the regular French troops, and for many years it was the favourite boast of a Canadian—that he had been employed in an expedition against the English, on the “Belle Riviere,” or on the “Ohio.”

The injurious effect of these proceedings was so great, that the British colonists at Albany were preparing to abandon their territory, when the New England colonies agreed to form a coalition for their mutual defence. A mission was despatched to London, explaining the views of the New Englanders, and soliciting aid towards the naval and military expedition, which was organising for the destruction of the French settlements in Canada and Nova Scotia.

The attack was to combine two expeditions—one to proceed by land and inland navigation against the southern frontier of the French; the other, consisting of a frigate mounting 40 guns, another ship of 16, and a third of 8 guns, with transports for the conveyance of 800 to 1000 men, in all about 34 vessels—against the French seaboard: the expedition cost the colonists £150,000. The naval force was confided to the charge of Sir William Phipps, a man of considerable ability, who had raised himself by persevering energy to a high station. Mr. Haliburton says that he was the son of a blacksmith at Pemaquid in New England; born in 1650, and apprenticed to a carpenter to learn shipbuilding. On the expiration of his indentures he built a vessel, which he navigated himself; and hearing of the wreck of a Spanish ship near the Bahamas, containing bullion, made an unsuccessful attempt to raise it. In 1683 Captain Phipps was sent by the English government in search of another Spanish wreck, in which he was also unsuccessful. Five years after, the Duke of Albemarle, then Governor of Jamaica, provided him with the necessary apparatus, and sent him to renew his search for this valuable wreck, which was reported to contain much wealth. After many fruitless endeavours Phipps was about retiring to Jamaica, when a sea-feather growing out of a rock, attracted the attention of some sailors who were crossing the reef in a small boat. A diver was sent to fetch it up, who, on descending, found several guns at the foot of the rock, and on a second descent obtained a quantity of silver. Finally, Phipps raised from the wreck thirty-two tons of silver bullion, and a large quantity of gold, pearls, and jewels, which had been lying in the sea for more than half a cen-

ture. Phipps was knighted by James II., made sheriff of New England, and on his solicitation entrusted with the command of a colonial expedition against the French in Nova Scotia, in which he was unfortunate; and he subsequently obtained the command of the fleet fitted out by the New Englanders against the French in Canada, whose proceedings we are now detailing. On the 20th of May, 1690 (according to Haliburton), Sir William Phipps and his squadron appeared before Port Royal in Nova Scotia. Mairival, the French Governor, having only 80 men and very insufficient defences, surrendered, as did also the Governor of Chedabucto, and the commanders of other posts in Acadia and Newfoundland. Phipps likewise captured several posts on the Saint Lawrence, and was within a few days' sail of Quebec before the alarm spread thither. Frontenac, the Governor, hastened from Montreal with reinforcements, and strengthened the defences, which consisted of little beyond rude intrenchments of timber and mounds of earth. On the morning of the 16th of October, 1691, Sir William reached the shores of Quebec, and summoned it to surrender: the summons was unhesitatingly rejected, yet the English, who had previously evinced so much activity, now appear to have been strangely remiss, for no hostile measure was taken until the 18th, when Phipps landed 1,500 men on the banks of the river St. Charles. The French, with only 300 irregulars, kept up a brisk firing, which caused much loss to the British, though at night they retreated into the town, leaving them masters of the field. The larger vessels anchored off Quebec, and directed a cannonade against the upper part of the city, which they renewed the following day, but with little effect. Meantime the ships had sustained considerable damage, and about noon the squadron moved up the river beyond Cape Diamond. The troops previously continued to advance, and Phipps sent on shore six pieces of ordnance, and pushed forward his men in hopes of capturing the place by means of land batteries. But the French militia harassed them severely, and maintained so steady and destructive a fire from behind some palisades that the English commander, considering further advance hopeless, re-embarked his troops on the 22nd, leaving behind their cannon and ammunition. Phipps has been much blamed for not attacking the body of the place, which, ac-

cording to Colden, he might easily have captured. Owing to some misunderstanding, or want of concert, the attack which was to have been made on Montreal simultaneously with that on Quebec, did not take place; but in the following year (1691) the Iroquois, aided by some English and native allies, advanced towards Montreal. The military command there was then held by De Callière, an able officer who was very popular with his Indian neighbours, having even joined them in their war dances, and spared no pains to ingratiate himself with them; in which he appears to have been so successful, that when mustering his troops for defence, 800 Indians assembled to aid him at the Prairie de la Magdeleine. The Iroquois, nevertheless, succeeded in capturing several of the advanced posts and a considerable number of prisoners; but were eventually obliged to retreat, though they long afterwards continued to make sudden inroads upon the colony in every direction, headed by a favourite chief named the *Black Cauldron*; but their incursions were greatly checked by Frontenac's judicious distribution of military posts. The treaty of Ryswick in 1697, by which peace was concluded between Britain and France, produced a temporary cessation of hostilities in Canada; but with the renewal of war between the mother countries in 1702, they recommenced, and the English, elated by the successes of Marlborough and Eugene, and alarmed by the rapidly increasing number of the French colonists, then amounting to 15,000, conceived the bold design of embracing within their territory the whole of North America. The wars in which Louis XIV. was engaged compelled him to leave the Canadian government very much to its own resources. De Callière, who had succeeded Frontenac, died in 1703, and the Count de Vaudreuil was appointed governor in his stead. He was a man of great ability, but his policy, like that of his predecessors, was to extend, in every possible manner, the French dominion; to cut the English off from the fur trade, and gradually to hem them in between the highlands of Nova Scotia and the Alleghany Mountains. The English now called upon their allies of the "Five Nations" to renew hostilities against their old enemies; but these tribes were exceedingly unwilling to move, and alleged, that when they concluded a treaty, they did so with an intention to keep it: while the Europeans seemed to enter into such engage-

ments solely with the view of immediately breaking them. One chief intimated his suspicion that both nations were drunk. They did little, therefore, of themselves, or by their own impulse; and when called upon to join in an expedition, came slowly and reluctantly forward. At this period the aborigines were numerous and powerful. Tribes of Abenagua, Algonquin, Iroquois, Mississauga, and Huron Indians, occupied the country from below Quebec to Lake Huron.

In 1709 a plan for the conquest of Canada was approved by the parliament of queen Anne, and authority and resources deemed sufficient for its accomplishment, were sent to New York. De Vaudreuil, who had some time before made an incursion on the English frontier, and destroyed a village named Hewreuil, or Haverhill, was on the watch, and soon learned that 2,000 English had issued from New York, and were to be joined by an equal number of savages: he assembled his troops, and would have carried the war into the enemy's country, but his allies objected, and he then turned all his attention to strengthening his own frontier. The British formed a chain of posts from New York, occupied in great force lakes George and Champlain, erected forts to protect their descent upon Canada, and made every preparation for attacking Montreal; but a large body of the forces whose assistance they expected, being required for the war on the continent of Europe, and the Iroquois having, in a general council, come to the determination that the prolongation of strife between the two European nations was the best security for the maintenance of their independence, which would in all probability be lost if either became dominant, suddenly deserted them; the English, in consequence of this double disappointment, weakened also by a pestilential fever which had broken out among them, and was said to have been caused by the Indians poisoning the water of which they drank, were compelled to abandon the enterprise; and after destroying their forts they returned to New York. The interval of peace between the rival colonies was, however, of very brief duration, and the French were employed during the greater part of it in barbarous and exterminating warfare with an extensive tribe, called the Outagamis, or Foxes, whom they did not succeed in wholly destroying, and whose incursions, though carried on by a mere remnant, rendered their communication with their settlements on the Mississippi

insecure. The British government resolved to give the New Englanders stronger support, in their endeavours to expel the French from Canada and Nova Scotia; in 1710 an armament was fitted out for a combined attack on Canada by sea and land, and on the 18th September, a fleet, consisting of the *Dragon*, *Leostaff*, *Ferersham*, and *Chester* men-of-war, the *Star-bomb* and *Massachusetts*, provincial galleys, with fourteen transports in the pay of Massachusetts, five of Connecticut, two of New Hampshire, three of Rhode Island, a tender, and five English transports, with one regiment of marines from England, and four regiments of provincials raised in New England, but commissioned by the queen, and armed at the royal expense, sailed from Boston bay for Port Royal, in Nova Scotia, where it arrived on the 24th September, 1710. The particulars of the siege, and capitulation of the French governor, Subercase, belong to the history of Nova Scotia. The English lost 15 men, besides 26 who were wrecked in a transport at the entrance of the harbour; 200 marines and 250 volunteers were left to garrison Port Royal, and on the 26th October the expedition returned to Boston. Meanwhile, the Count De Vaudreuil was busily engaged strengthening the fortifications, constructing barracks, and training militia, amounting to 5,000 in a population of 25,000. Much apprehension was felt by the Canadians notwithstanding the strength of Quebec, which was deemed so impregnable that a proposed attempt for its capture was one of the articles of impeachment against Harley, the English minister. The plans of the British were frustrated by an unforeseen disaster, arising partly from tempestuous weather, and partly from their ignorance of the coast; in one day (22nd August) 8 transports containing 884 officers, soldiers and sailors, were wrecked at the Seven Islands, near the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and the remaining vessels returned to Boston. General Nicholson, had already taken the field, at the head of the land forces, but on learning the loss of the fleet, he fell back on New York. The English colonists, again defeated, still persevered, and were making fresh preparations for renewing hostilities, when the change of ministry in England, and the treaty of Utrecht on the 13th March, 1713, relieved Canada for a time from further apprehension, for by this treaty England resigned her claim to Canada, and France hers to Acadia and Newfoundland, and

made over to England her assumed rights to the sovereignty of the Five Nations, which she having never been able to enforce, and England being in that respect equally powerless, was a merely nominal concession.

This treaty was the commencement of a new epoch for Canada, and the unusual period of tranquillity which followed it, caused a great increase in her agriculture and commerce. In 1720, Quebec had a population of about 7,000, and Montreal of 3,000. Nineteen vessels cleared from Quebec, laden with peltries, lumber, tar, tobacco, flour, pork, &c., and four men-of-war were built in the colony. From Charlevoix's description of the city, which he visited in 1720-21, part of the upper and lower towns must have been built, but the adjacent shores and islands were still covered with forests. The society generally, he describes, as gay and sociable, consisting chiefly of military men, and the lower order of noblesse, all poor, and likely to continue so, being much better adapted for practising the most agreeable ways of spending money, than the more laborious methods of making it. They saw their English neighbours steadily employed in accumulating wealth, but consoled themselves with the reflection that they did not know how to enjoy it. Their favourite employment was the fur trade, the only one indeed at all adapted to their excitable natures and desultory habits, but the little fortunes they occasionally made thereby, were compared by Charlevoix to the hillocks of sand in the deserts of Africa, which rise and disappear almost at the same moment. Below Quebec, the banks of the St. Lawrence were laid out in tolerably cultivated seigniories. Trois Rivières then contained only 800 inhabitants; the city of Montreal was rapidly extending, and was in a great degree protected from the incursions of hostile Indians by the barriers formed by the villages of Sault St. Louis, and Montgomery, which were inhabited by friendly tribes. Above Montreal there were only detached stations for defence and barter with the Indians. Fort Cataragui, or Frontenac, on Lake Ontario, appears to have stood in the midst of an uncultivated country, without any settlements in its vicinity. At Niagara, Charlevoix speaks of a cottage dignified with the name of a fort, and guarded by a few French officers and soldiers.

In 1725 the Marquis De Vaudreuil died, after having ably administered the affairs of Canada during 22 years. He had shewn

his judgment in the attention paid by him to the agricultural and commercial interests of Canada, an unusual feature in the policy of a French governor, their general aim being to extend the dominion, and strengthen the power of France by conquest and military rule; while the English, on the contrary, strove rather to establish themselves by the arts of peace.

In the following year (1726) he was succeeded by the Marquis de Beauharnois (a natural son of Louis XIV.) whose ambitious administration excited yet more the alarm and jealousy of the English colonists of New York and New England, while the intrigues of the Jesuits with the Indians contributed not a little to bring about the final struggle for dominion on the American continent, between the two most powerful nations of Europe. De Beauharnois continued in office for twenty years, and was followed by a succession of governors, whose tenure of office was too brief, and comparatively uneventful, to render their administration worth detailing.

The war between Great Britain and France in 1745, led to the reduction in that year of Cape Breton, by a British naval and military force, combined with the provincial troops of the New England colonies; but the successful battle of Fontenoy roused the martial spirit of the Canadians to attempt the re-conquest of Nova Scotia, in 1746 and 1747, in which they failed, and the treaty of Aix-La-Chapelle in 1748 for a time suspended hostilities. Commissioners were then appointed to settle a boundary line between the British and French territories in North America.

The object of the French was to confine the English within the boundary of the Alleghany mountains, and thus prevent their approach to the Lakes, the St. Lawrence, the Mississippi, (where the former had now established themselves) and their tributary streams. The local Government, without any authority from home, and with a display of military pomp, calculated to impress on the minds of the Indians the idea that France would assert her right to the territory thus marked, proceeded to survey the projected line of demarcation between the possessions of France and those which the Canadian governor was pleased, *in his liberality*, to assign to England; leaden plates, bearing the royal arms of France, were sunk at stated distances, and the whole ceremony was concluded with much formality. Such an important step, it may be

imagined, seriously alarmed the Indians, as well as the English, and ultimately led to their active co-operation for the utter expulsion of the French from North America.

In pursuance of the line of policy marked out by the French counsels at home and in Canada, the Jesuits intrigued with the Acadians or descendants of the early French inhabitants, with the view of prevailing on them to quit Nova Scotia, and migrate to a military post recently established beyond its frontier, on the Canadian side, where a new colony was to be formed, in aid of which the royal sanction was granted for an appropriation of 800,000 livres. Cornwallis, the governor of Nova Scotia, soon convinced the French that he was aware of their proceedings; he erected a fort opposite the French frontier, near the bay of Fundy, on the river Beaubassin, which he placed under the command of major Laurence, and seized at the mouth of the St. John river, a vessel laden with supplies for the French. While these measures were in progress, the French commenced enforcing their power along the line of demarcation they had marked out; three individuals who had licences to trade from their respective English governors with the Indians, on the Ohio, were seized by the French, and carried prisoners to Montreal, whence, after severe treatment and strict examination, they were at length liberated, with injunctions not to repeat their trespass on the French territories.

The intrigues of the Jesuits with the Iroquois to detach them from the English, were so far successful that the Indians permitted the French to erect the fort La Presentation, near their border; and, but for the extraordinary influence exercised by William Johnston, the wily character of the Canadians might have gone far to frustrate the confederacy forming between the English and Indians for the expulsion of the French. The arrival of the Marquis du Quesne de Menneville, in 1752,* as governor of Canada, Louisiana, Cape Breton, St. John's, and their dependencies, and the openly aggressive spirit he displayed, gave indications that hostilities might soon be expected in Eu-

rope; detachments of regulars, militia, and Indians were despatched by the marquis to the Ohio; fort Du Quesne (actually within the Virginia territory) and other posts were erected, in the hope of keeping the English within the Apalachian or Alleghany mountains; and from Ticonderago, Crown Point, and Fort Niagara, the most ferocious attacks were made on the peaceable English settlers,† notwithstanding the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. The British, though still acting on the defensive, were not idle; a fort was built in the vicinity of Du Quesne fort, quaintly termed *Necessity*, and a garrison was despatched from Virginia, under the command of George Washington, whose name has since become so illustrious, and who then held a lieutenant-colonel's commission. Washington, on his march to assume the command of Fort *Necessity*, was met by a reconnoitring party from Du Quesne fort, under M. de Jumonville, who peremptorily forbade the English to proceed further. The mandate was answered by a volley of musketry, which killed Jumonville and several of his men. The French commandant at Du Quesne, Monsieur Contrecoeur, besieged Fort *Necessity*, and obliged Washington to capitulate. England at that time was openly preparing for war with France, which the ambition of Frederick of Prussia and the state of Europe soon rendered general. A strong fleet, with troops and warlike munition, was despatched to reinforce Quebec; an English fleet pursued it, and succeeded in capturing two frigates, with the engineers and troops on board, on the banks of Newfoundland.

The Marquis du Quesne having resigned, he was succeeded in July, 1755, by the last French governor in Canada, the Marquis de Vaudreuil de Cavagnal, whose administration commenced by the defeat of the brave but rash general Braddock, on the 9th of July, 1755, in one of the defiles of the Alleghany Mountains. Braddock, accustomed to European, rather than to Indian warfare, neglected the accustomed precaution of scouts and advance posts; and refused to make the needful preparations

to their separate local governments) was held at Albany in July, 1754, when Benjamin Franklin drew up a plan for uniting the States, establishing a quota, and levying men and money throughout the different Colonies to resist the French, which, though not then acted on, became subsequently the basis of the federal union formed for the overthrow of the British dominion in America.

* In this year a 74 gun-ship was built by the French government in Canada, but owing to some mismanagement she was *hogged* in launching near Cape Diamond. Two cargoes of Canadian wheat were shipped at the same period for Marseilles; the arrival of which was naturally hailed with great satisfaction in France.

† It was at this period that the remarkable convention of the British colonists (then vulnerable owing

against the French and their Indian allies, who, when the devoted British had entered a gorge, where retreat was almost impossible, poured from their ambuscades a deadly fire, under which the soldiers of the unfortunate Braddock fell rapidly, without even the satisfaction of seeing or meeting their foes. The death of their leader was the signal that further advance was hopeless; and Colonel Washington, the second in command, succeeded by a strenuous and skillful effort in rescuing the remainder of the British army, who were afterwards joined by 6,000 provincial troops, under general Johnston and governor Shirley. Johnston, with the intention of investing Crown Point, joined general Lyman near Lake George, where they were attacked by 3,000 French, under the command of Baron Dieskau. After a contest of four hours' duration, the French retreated to Crown Point, with a loss of 1,000 men and the capture of their leader, who was severely wounded. General Johnston also received several wounds, his conduct was highly commended, and the honour of knighthood was conferred upon him. This success revived the drooping spirits of the British army, and helped to train the provincials, who were brigaded along with the regular troops, for the contest they were soon to wage with the very men by whose side they now fought. The campaign of 1755 closed in October with the retirement of the British to Albany, after reinforcing the garrison of Oswego, but without any attack on Crown Point. France, fully aware of the importance of Canada, sent out early in the ensuing year a large body of chosen troops under the command of major-general the Marquis de Montcalm, who, after continued successes during the campaigns of 1756 and 1757, captured Forts Oswego and William Henry. Their triumph was, however, stained by the brutal massacre of nearly 2,000 English prisoners by their Indian allies, sanctioned, it was asserted, by the French, though the chivalrous character of De Montcalm renders it highly improbable that he could have been concerned in it. The feelings excited throughout England and North America by the tidings of this monstrous deed may be conceived, and the deep abhorrence felt towards those who, if they did not actually permit it, at least appeared to have taken no active measures for its prevention, tended materially to accelerate the downfall of French dominion in Canada. The elder

Pitt (afterwards earl of Chatham), then recently called to the head of affairs, proved himself a great statesman, and by his extraordinary powers of eloquence infused an energetic spirit into His Majesty's counsels, and so wielded the resources of the nation, that a rapid change came over the aspect of American affairs. Preparations were made on a great scale for the assistance of the New Englanders, and the campaign was opened upon a plan of combined operations by sea and land somewhat resembling that adopted in 1690. Three divisions, under generals of acknowledged talent, were to invade Canada at different points, of which the chief was that destined to attack Quebec, which being the capital of the French dominions, situated in the midst of a hostile country, rendered almost impregnable by its position and fortifications, and defended by 20,000 regulars and militia, besides numerous Indian allies, was considered the most arduous undertaking of the whole war. The officer selected by Mr. Pitt for the command of this detachment was General Wolfe, who though only thirty-three years of age, possessed a military reputation of long standing, having distinguished himself at the battle of Lafelt when only twenty. At the siege of Louisburg, in the preceding year, he had established his character as an officer of extraordinary ability, for though not first in command, being present only as brigadier-general, his exertions mainly contributed to the obtainment of this important position. The naval forces destined for the attack comprised twenty sail of the line, two ships of fifty guns, twelve frigates, and fourteen smaller vessels, under the command of admiral Saunders; and by this fleet the soldiers of Wolfe, amounting to 8,000 veteran troops, were safely conveyed to the Isle of Orleans.

The Marquis de Montcalm made vigorous preparations for the defence of Quebec; his armed force consisted of about 13,000 men, of whom six battalions were regulars, and the remainder well disciplined Canadian troops, with some cavalry and Indians; his army was ranged from the river St. Lawrence to the Falls of Montmorenci, ready to oppose the landing of the British. He possessed also a few vessels of war and some fire ships, with which an attempt was made to destroy the English fleet, but they were caught by grappling irons, and towed safely past. The strength of De Montcalm's defences was proved by the unsuccessful at-

tempt made by Brigadier-general Monckton, who occupied Point Levi, opposite Quebec, to bombard the capital; and, again, by the failure of the attack of the 31st of July, headed by Wolfe, on the entrenchments at Montmorenci, in which the assailants were repulsed with a loss of 182 killed and 650 wounded, including 11 officers killed and 46 wounded. The boats, it is said, in which the British landed, were accidentally delayed—the grenadiers rushed forward too eagerly,—and the French, strongly posted, and aided by many Indian riflemen, poured on them a destructive fire, which compelled their retreat. Wolfe keenly felt this disappointment, and expressed in his despatches home, his doubt of being able to reduce Quebec during that campaign, as the fleet, his strongest arm, was ineffective against the rocky wall on which the citadel stood, and the positions of the French were, moreover, guarded by troops more numerous than his own. As soon as he had partially recovered from a violent fever, caused by grief and anxiety acting on a feeble frame, he called a council of war, in which it was agreed to act on the bold suggestion proposed by General Townshend, of attempting to gain the heights of Abraham, which commanded the weakest point of the city. Wolfe accordingly commenced operations, and conducted them with an address, secrecy, and presence of mind, rarely equalled. He deceived the French by still appearing to direct his whole attention to the Montmorenci entrenchments, and at nightfall on the 12th of September, 1759, the troops, consisting of the 15th, 22nd, 28th, 35th, 40th, 43rd, 45th, 47th, 48th, 58th, 60th (2nd and 3rd battalions), and 78th regiments, with a corps of rangers, embarked in two divisions; the boats dropped silently down the river, and the troops landed in safety at the place now called Wolfe's Cove. Here a new difficulty presented itself—the ascent was so precipitous that Wolfe is said to have doubted its being practicable; but the soldiers led by Frazer's Highlanders, and aided by the branches of shrubs and roots of trees growing among the rocks, succeeded in reaching the summit, where they were speedily drawn up in regular order. De Montcalm, madened by finding his vigilance had failed in guarding this important pass, lost his usual prudence, and seeing that his opponent had gained so much by hazarding all, he, with an infatuation for which only strongly excited feeling can account, resolved upon

meeting the British in battle array on the plains of Abraham, without even waiting the return of 2,000 men dispatched by him as a corps of observation under De Bougainville, to Cape Rouge, nine miles above Quebec. The French sallied forth from their almost impregnable fortress without field artillery, and with a heat and precipitation which, under the circumstances, strangely contrasted with the coolness and precision of the British. The eagle eye of Wolfe took in at a glance all the details of his position. He knew that for him retreat was next to impossible; yet while directing his main attention to the steady advance of his right division, he skilfully covered his flanks, and endeavoured to preserve their communication with the shore. Both armies may be said to have been without artillery, the French having only two guns, and the English a light cannon, which the soldiers had dragged up the heights with ropes; the sabre and the bayonet accordingly decided the day, and never was the nervous strength of the British arm more manifestly displayed. The agile Scotch Highlanders powerfully wielded their stout claymores, and filled the place of cavalry, while the steady fire of the English fusileers compensated, in some degree, the absence of artillery. On the part of the French 1,500 light infantry, and some Indian riflemen, advanced first, and began a desultory fire; but the British reserved their shot for the main body, and opened no general fire in return until their opponents were within forty yards. They then discharged a deadly volley, which Wolfe followed up by charging with the bayonet, at the head of the grenadiers of the 22nd, 40th, and 50th regiments, who had acquired the honourable title of Louisburgh grenadiers. Although wounded by a ball in the wrist, and another in the groin, and suffering from fever and dysentery, he still pressed on against the French, who fought with fury heightened by the fanaticism excited in them by the priests against the English heretics. The heroism of De Montcalm was as conspicuous as that of his illustrious opponent; both headed their men—both rushed with eagerness wherever the battle raged most fiercely, and often by their personal prowess and example changed the fortune of the moment—both acutely sensible of the responsibility of their respective positions, and stimulated by the enthusiasm which only those who have mixed in the heady current of battle can conceive—

though repeatedly wounded still pressed on at the head of their men, till almost, at the same moment, both of these gallant commanders received their death wound. A ball entered the breast of Wolfe, who, faint with the loss of blood, reeled, and leant against the shoulder of one of his officers, whispering, "*Support me! let not my brave soldiers see me drop.*" He was carried to some distance in the rear; his eyes were waxing dim, and the life-blood ebbing fast from his strong and generous heart, when the cry of "*THEY RUN! THEY RUN!*" rent the air, and seemed to stay for a moment his fleeting spirit. "*Who run?*" he eagerly inquired. "*The French,*" was the reply. Then, said the general, "*Pray, do one of you run to colonel Barton, and tell him to march Webbs' regiment with all speed down to Charles river, to cut off the retreat of the fugitives. Now, God be praised! I shall die happy.*" The patriotic soldier then closed his eyes, and expired. The gallant Montcalm also perished, rejoicing in his last moments that he should not live to witness the surrender of Quebec; and both the conquerors and the conquered joined in deploring the loss of their brave and beloved commanders. General Townshend thus wrote home respecting the British hero:—"I am not ashamed to own to you, that my heart does not exult in the midst of this success. I have lost but a friend in general Wolfe; our country a sure support and a perpetual honour. If the world were sensible at how dear a price we have purchased Quebec in his death, it would damp the public joy. Our best consolation is, that Providence seemed not to promise that he should remain long among us. He was himself sensible of the weakness of his constitution, and determined to crowd into a few years actions that would have adorned length of life." The contest had scarcely ended when De Bougainville appeared in the rear; but he perceived that the fortune of the day was decided, and retreated without attempting to retrieve it. On the 18th Quebec capitulated. The French lost about 1,500 men killed and wounded. The loss of the British was as follows:—1 general, 1 captain, 6 lieutenants, 1 ensign, 3 serjeants, and 45 rank and file killed; and 1 brigadier-general, 1 staff officer, 12 captains, 26 lieutenants, 10 engineers, 25 serjeants, 4 drummers, and 506 rank and file wounded. The expeditions by land were also successful. General Amherst marched from New York with

a large force, and reduced Ticonderago and Crown Point; while General Prideaux, aided by Sir William Johnston, with a body of Indian troops, took Niagara—and thus ended the campaign. In the spring of 1760 general De Levi having assembled an army of regulars and militia amounting to 12,000 men, advanced to the heights of Abraham, and prepared to besiege Quebec, which had been left under the command of general Murray with a garrison of about 5,000 men, but whose numbers had been greatly reduced by sickness. Relying on the bravery of his troops, and fearing, perhaps, that his fortifications were not sufficient to withstand the enemy, general Murray quitted his fortress with about 3,000 men to give De Levi battle; but overpowered by numbers he was compelled to return to Quebec, with the loss of 1,000 men and all his field artillery. The French, it is said, lost 2,500. De Levi then besieged the town, but Murray held out bravely until the arrival of a small squadron under admiral Swanton on the 15th of May, compelled the precipitate retreat of De Levi. The French army then concentrated itself in Montreal; but being enclosed by the three divisions, viz., that under General Amherst, and those from Quebec and Niagara, the French could no longer maintain their ground, and the Marquis de Vaudreuil on the 8th of September, 1760, was compelled to sign a capitulation surrendering to the British the whole of Canada. The population of Canada then amounted to about 69,000, including 7,400 converted Indians, and were described by general Murray as a frugal, industrious, and moral race, with a noblesse also very poor, but much respected. The land chiefly cultivated was a comparatively narrow strip on the banks of the St. Lawrence. No people ever had juster cause of gratitude for a change of government than the Canadians in the present instance. The colonists were suffering severely from rapacity and misgovernment. Bigot, the French Intendant, or king's financier, and his creatures, plundered the colonists in all possible ways; a paper currency, termed card-money, based on the responsibility of the king of France, for the general support of the civil and military establishments of the colony, and which, from having been faithfully redeemed during a period of thirty years, enjoyed unlimited credit, enabled Bigot to conceal for a long time his waste and peculations; and while the British were capturing Canada by force of arms, the French monarch was

destroying the commerce and prospects of his subjects by dishonouring the bills of exchange of the Intendant to whom he had granted absolute power; thus involving in ruin those who possessed any bills or paper currency, which at the conquest amounted to nearly £4,000,000 sterling, the only compensation received for which was four per cent. on the original value.

Civil and religious liberty was granted to the Canadians; and in the words of the writer of the *Political Annals of Canada*, "previous history affords no example of such forbearance and generosity on the part of the conquerors towards the conquered—forming such a new era in civilised warfare that an admiring world admitted the claim of Great Britain to the glory of conquering a people, less from views of ambition and the security of her other colonies, than from the hope of improving their situation, and endowing them with the privileges of freemen."

At first the English civil law was introduced, and all offices were conferred on British subjects, then consisting of military officers and about 500 petty traders, who treated with contempt even the French noblesse, many of whom were fine specimens of the French gentlemen of the "old school." General Murray, the first English governor of the province, strongly protested against the home policy, which was at length altered, and in 1774 the "Quebec Bill" was passed, which restored to the French, in civil matters, the ancient system called the *Coutume de Paris*, established a legislative council for the regulation of all matters except taxation, and substituted a modified oath of allegiance for the previous oaths of abjuration and supremacy.

A new cause of disturbance again involved the Canadian colonists in the horrors of war, for they were ere long called upon to defend their territory from the very men who had assisted them in acquiring it from the French. The refusal of the New Englanders to contribute their share of taxes levied by the British government, mainly for the purpose of defraying the expenses incurred in the capture of Canada, unless permitted to send representatives to the British parliament, with other reasons which it is not within the scope of this work to detail, led to their declaration of independence, and the formation of the United States republic, which was no sooner established than the New Englanders, henceforth to be termed the

Americans, attempted the conquest of Canada. Towards the close of the summer of 1775, the American forces, amounting to 4,000 men, invaded Canada by Lake Champlain, and from the sources of the Kennebec river. The main division, under brigadier-general Montgomery, was eminently successful; Montreal, Chambly, St. John's, Longueuil, and other posts then of importance were captured, and all the military stores and provisions at Montreal and on the rivers fell into their hands. The smaller division of the American army under colonel Arnold, consisting of 1100 men, sailed up the Kennebec, and after traversing with great difficulty the forests and swamps of Maine, where their sufferings from hunger were so intolerable as to induce them to eat the flesh of dogs, and the leather of their cartouche boxes, arrived at Satagan on the 4th of November, and on the 8th reached Point Levi, opposite Quebec, whose inhabitants were perfectly ignorant of their approach. Quebec was at this moment almost defenceless, and had Arnold been able to cross the river, in all probability it must have been captured; but, fortunately, the shipping had been removed to the other side, and the news of its danger reached the city while there was yet time to prepare for its defence. General Carleton, the British governor, was meanwhile occupied in endeavouring to repulse general Montgomery, who, having made himself master of Montreal, turned his attention to effect a junction of his own division with that of Arnold.

The British general, by a masterly manœuvre, passed quietly down the river, and reached the citadel on the 19th of November without interruption, Arnold's troops having previously crossed the St. Lawrence a short distance above Quebec, taken possession of the environs, and encamped at Pointe aux Trembles, 21 miles from Quebec, awaiting Montgomery, who on his arrival assumed the command of both divisions. Carleton was welcomed in Quebec with great joy; the French Canadians vied with the oldest British soldiers in zeal and energy; and the little garrison of 1,800 men, of whom only 350 were regulars (including 230 of Frazer's Highlanders, who had settled in the country and were re-embodied under colonel McLean), 450 seamen, and the remainder a gallant band of Canadian militia and armed artificers, awaited with calm confidence the attack of the combined forces. Montgomery summoned the citadel to surrender and re-

ceived an immediate refusal, upon which a blockade was commenced, which lasted throughout the whole month of December, when the Americans held a council of war, and decided upon a night assault. The besiegers divided into two storming parties, and, headed by Montgomery and Arnold, advanced, during the raging of a furious snow-storm, from opposite points, intending to unite near Prescott gate, and after forcing it proceed to the upper town. As they approached the gate the assailants led by Montgomery became crowded in the long narrow pass leading to the gate of the fortress, and a confused noise, mingling with the conflict of the elements, struck the watchful ear of the outer sentinel, who, receiving no answer to his challenge, roused the guard. Montgomery, with great quickness, formed his men for the assault, but the Canadian militia, aided by nine British seamen to work the guns, opened a tremendous fire from the battery which commanded the path, and compelled their retreat. The besieged, nevertheless, unable to ascertain the real state of affairs, continued their cannonade until every sound in answer to their fire had died away. The morning dawned without at first revealing any traces of the enemy, for the falling snow had thrown, as it were, a mantle over the dead bodies of the brave Montgomery and the gallant soldiers who had fallen by his side. His death was rendered the more striking by the circumstance of his having, sixteen years before, served under Wolfe on the heights of Abraham, but on his marriage with the daughter of Judge Livingston he joined the cause of the colonists, and perished in attempting to deprive the British of the fortress he had previously aided them in acquiring.

Arnold had also been unsuccessful. In a desperate assault on the first barrier on the opposite side he had been severely wounded, and taken off the field; but captain Morgan led on his division, carried the first barrier, and pushed on to the second, but being hemmed in by a detachment of British and Canadians in the rear, captain Morgan with his men, to the number of 126, surrendered without reaching Prescott gate, where the governor had taken his stand. The death of their commander greatly dispirited the Americans, and though Arnold endeavoured to maintain his position little was done until April, 1776, when a reinforcement of 2000 men arrived under general Wooster, who made some ineffectual attacks; but the dis-

embarcation, early in May, of supplies from England obliged the Americans to retreat to Montreal, and enabled Carleton entirely to expel them from Canada.

At the time of the invasion there were not more than 900 regular troops in the British colony, and the greater part of these surrendered in Forts Chambly and St. John, or were taken while retiring from Montreal. Such, however, were the feelings of the Canadians, on account of the honourable treatment experienced from the English government, after the conquest of the colony from the French, that they cheerfully exerted themselves to preserve Canada to England, thus affording another illustration of the wisdom of humane and generous policy. It was only on the 7th September, that the Canadian officers of militia received their commissions; but their activity and zeal made amends for the tardiness with which confidence had been reposed in them, and of 1,500 defenders of Quebec, 800 were militia men. When the Americans evacuated the province, they had about 8,000 men, but the Canadian militia and regulars presented to them an organised force of 13,000, and thus compelled their retreat across the frontier.

On the termination of the American war, in 1783, many royalists sought refuge in Upper or Western Canada, where lands were freely granted them in the Western districts, adjoining the great lakes. In 1790-91, Mr. Pitt, to gratify the strongly expressed desire for representative government in Canada and for the adoption of English institutions, divided the province into two districts; the *Western* being called Upper, and the *Eastern* Lower Canada. The representative assemblies were elected by 40s. freeholders, which was nearly equivalent to universal suffrage, but the proposed counterpoise by the creation of an hereditary noblesse, including the most respectable of the French seigneurs, was prevented by the opposition of Mr. Fox, whose recommendation of a council chosen by the crown for life, was adopted. The first House of Assembly in Lower Canada, consisting of 50 members, was held in 1792. The object of Mr. Pitt in dividing the province was evidently to conciliate the feelings, and even prejudices, of the French Canadians, who, in 1778, in a memorial to the crown, thus expressed their sentiments:—"It is our religion, our laws relative to our property, and our personal surety in which we are most interested;

and these we enjoy in the most ample manner by the Quebec bill. We are the more averse to a House of Assembly, from the fatal consequences which will result from it. Can we, as Roman Catholics, hope to preserve for any length of time the same prerogatives as Protestant subjects in a House of Representatives? and will there not come a time when the influence of the latter will overbalance that of our posterity? In this case should we and our posterity enjoy the same advantages which our present constitution secures to us? Again: have we not reason to dread lest we should soon see those taxes levied upon the estates which are at present actually levied upon articles of commerce, which the inhabitant pays indirectly it is true, but in proportion to what he consumes? Shall we not fear that we may one day see the seeds of dissension created by the Assembly of Representatives, and nourished by those intestine hatreds which the opposite interests of the old and new subjects will naturally give birth to?"

The Legislative Council of Lower Canada for some time governed the colony, and the Representative Assembly was merely the register of its acts; and previous to 1807 complaints were made, that the members of the Council made large grants of land to themselves; the Assembly demanded that the judges being dependent on and removable by the government should not sit in the Assembly, and to gain this concession they offered to defray from the funds of the colony, the whole expense of its civil administration. This was refused by the governor and representatives of the crown with indignation, the Assembly was dissolved, and a French newspaper, termed the "Canadian," which had censured the proceedings of the government, and of the Legislative Council, was suppressed, by the imprisonment of the printer, and the destruction of his types and presses. Six individuals were also taken into custody, but never brought to trial, and the period was not inappropriately called the "reign of terror." In 1811 a new Assembly was convened; it persisted in the same demands, when fortunately for all parties, general Sir James Craig, who had been governor-general from the 24th October, 1807, was on the 14th September, 1811, replaced by Sir George Prevost, who at once expressed a desire to redress existing grievances, and his sympathy with the men who were struggling for freedom, and who in 1803, had,

through the chief-justice of Montreal, declared that slavery was inconsistent with the laws of the country, and that all slaves in Canada should receive their liberty.

In 1812, the Americans, thinking the period propitious for capturing Canada, by reason of the discontent which existed, especially in Lower Canada, at the conduct of Sir James Craig, resolved to declare war against England, and invade Canada, where it was supposed the mass of the people would be disposed to receive the Americans with open arms. Dr. Eustis, secretary-at-war, said in Congress—"We can take the Canadas without soldiers; we have only to send officers into the provinces, and the people disaffected towards their own government will rally round our standard;" and Mr. Clay stated—"It is absurd to suppose that we shall not succeed in our enterprise against the enemy's provinces. We have the Canadas as much at our command as Great Britain has the ocean. We must take the continent from them: I wish never to see peace till we do."

The proceedings of the United States government of that day were totally unjustifiable. The Marquis Wellesley, then Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, received intelligence from different parts of America during the year 1811, that the Americans were preparing to invade Canada. On the 24th June, 1812, it was known at Quebec that war was declared between England and America; and the Canadians rose with a noble spirit, in defence of England and of their country. They might have availed themselves of the disturbed state of Great Britain—they might have joined, on their own terms, the United States, and formed a portion of the Congress—but their efforts were those of a generous nature, which, forgetting the injuries, remembered only the benefits, received from England. Four battalions of militia were instantly raised,—the Canadian Voltigeurs (a fine corps especially suited to the country) were organized and equipped in the short space of six weeks, by the liberality of the younger part of the Canadian gentry, from among whom they were gallantly officered; thus a spirit of military enthusiasm was infused into the whole population, and an example held up to the settlers in Upper Canada, highly important at a crisis, when the regular troops of England were drained from the colonies for the purpose of combating Napoleon.

Sir George Prevost, the new governor, summoned the Canadian parliament, ap-

pealed to its honourable spirit, to the attachment of the people to the religion of their forefathers, and their ardent love for the true interests of their country. The Canadians responded to the appeal, and were expressly thanked by his royal highness the Prince Regent for their support and attachment—his royal highness declaring, that “relying with confidence on the courage and loyalty of his majesty’s Canadian subjects, he was equally fearless of the result of any attack upon them, or of any insidious attempt to alienate their affections from the mother country.”

On the breaking out of the war, Upper Canada was partly peopled by emigrants from the United States, who might be supposed unwilling to shed the blood of their kindred; the people of Lower Canada had but recently been represented by authority as seditious, or so liable to be turned from their allegiance as to endanger the government. There were only about 4,000 British troops in both provinces, scattered along a frontier of 1,300 miles; and the St. Lawrence, an immense military highway, open to the United States, and leading into the heart of Canada, was undefended, thus endangering the safety of the British forces stationed on its borders. With the view of keeping up the price of bills of exchange, of which the military government was the chief vendor, the specie of the country had been suffered to be carried into the United States, which materially added to existing difficulties. To remedy this and prepare for defence, the legislature was assembled; and government paper, bearing interest, and payable in bills of exchange on England, was substituted for specie.

The arrival of two battalions, for the purpose of relieving two others under orders for their departure, added to the regular force. At the instance of the government, a law had passed during the preceding winter, for drafting the militia for actual service, and four weak battalions had been assembled before the war. Every description of force was prepared for service; the citadel of Quebec was garrisoned by the inhabitants of the town, proud of the duty and of the confidence of the government. In a month after the declaration of war, the lower province seemed capable of becoming the assailant. The Americans had collected, in the summer of 1811, their principal regular force on their north-western frontier ostensibly against the Indians, whom they attacked. This force,

commanded by general Hull, one of the few remaining officers of the war of Independence, was joined by militia and volunteers, who had set out on their march for Upper Canada, before the declaration of war. The invaders made roads through immense forests, depending on them for their communications and supplies, and arrived at Detroit, on the fifth July, 1812, about 2,500 strong. On the 12th July, the enemy passed over into Upper Canada, took possession of Sandwich, and issued a proclamation to the apparently defenceless inhabitants, inviting them to join the American standard, or at least to remain inactive, assuring them, in either case, of the protection of the United States. After some trifling skirmishes with the handful of British troops stationed at Fort Maldon, which, under the command of lieutenant-colonel St. George protected Amherstburg, and upon hearing of the consequences of the surrender of Michilimackinack, which drew upon the Americans the hostility of nearly all the Indians, general Hull became alarmed for his own safety, and returned to Detroit, where he shut himself up on the 7th of August. Sir George Prevost had entrusted the government and command of Upper Canada to general Brock, an able and active soldier, who strenuously supported the spirit of the loyal inhabitants. On the 5th August, Brock prorogued the parliament at York; on the 12th he was at Amherstburg; he crossed the frontier and was advancing to the attack of the fort of Detroit, when a white flag was held out, and general Hull and his whole army, who, it must be owned, were greatly reduced by sickness, surrendered to a force of 330 regulars, 400 militia, and 600 Indians. People were utterly amazed when they saw so considerable a part of the American forces marched captive into Montreal and Quebec. Two months after the surrender of Hull, the enemy had collected another force of 6000 men on the Niagara frontier. On the 13th October, this force crossed over into Upper Canada, at Queenston, and overpowered the small detachment stationed there. General Brock, who was at Fort George, put himself at the head of a small party, hastened to the spot in advance of his army, and fell while valiantly, but intellectually, resisting overpowering numbers. The enemy obtained possession of the heights, but was soon dislodged by the British troops on their arrival, and 700 men surrendered at discretion to general Sheaffe, on whom the

command had devolved. A temporary truce ensued, which was interrupted by an attempt at invasion, on the 20th and 28th November, near Fort Erie, by the American general Smyth, with 4,500 men, which was repulsed by lieutenant-colonel Bisschopp, with 600 regulars and militia. An equally unsuccessful attempt was made about the same time, by the British naval force on Lake Ontario, against Sacket's harbour. The rest of the winter passed away without any event of importance, except the capture, on the 22nd January, by colonel Proctor, after a smart action, of 49 prisoners, amongst whom was the American general Winchester, on the Detroit frontier; and an assault on Ogdensburg, which appears to have been intended as a prelude to an attack on Sacket's Harbour. From the time of the surrender of Hull, the Americans, however much they blamed that officer, seem to have been fully aware of the chief cause of his disaster; they, therefore, strained every nerve to obtain control of the lakes, and the ice no sooner disappeared on Lake Ontario, than they came out with a superior naval force from Sacket's Harbour, which, for a time, secured to them the possession of the lake.

On the 27th April, 1813, general Dearborn landed with 2000 Americans, who, after a brave resistance on the part of general Sheaffe, and about 600 men, gained possession of York (Toronto) the capital of Upper Canada, where they destroyed the public buildings, carried off the artillery and naval stores, and wreaked their vengeance on a printing press, and the frame of a ship building for the British service on the lake. The enemy then proceeded to Niagara to besiege Fort George, where they landed troops, and then returned to Sacket's Harbour, from whence additional forces were conveyed to the same quarter, which succeeded in landing to the number of 4000 men, in spite of the determined resistance of brigadier-general Vincent; who with only 1000 regulars and 300 militia, and a fort rendered indefensible by the severe fire it had sustained from an American battery on the opposite side, still contested the ground, but was finally compelled to retreat to Burlington Bay, near the western extremity of Lake Ontario, leaving the whole Niagara frontier, containing a very large proportion of the population of Upper Canada, in the power of the enemy. During the taking of Fort George, an abortive attempt

was made by general Sir G. Prevost on the Americans at Sacket's Harbour, which, unhappily, led to a misunderstanding between him and the naval service, productive of much evil to the British interest in the Canadas during the remainder of the war. Their success encouraged the enemy, and extraordinary exertions were made at this period by the United States. Two corps were despatched under generals Winchester and Harrison, by different lines, for the seizure of Detroit and the adjoining districts; Winchester, with about 1000 men, arrived first, and colonel Proctor seizing the opportunity, hastily collected his forces, amounting to about 500 whites, and 450 Indians, gave the enemy battle on the 22nd January, 1813, and succeeded in gaining a complete victory, capturing the general and 467 American soldiers, and killing and wounding as many more; general Winchester fell into the hands of a Wyandot Indian, who stripped off his uniform, adorned his own person with it, and was with difficulty induced to make restitution.

Colonel Proctor reinforced his troops, and proceeded to the falls of Miami, where general Harrison had taken up his position, and having learned the defeat of his associate, was awaiting succours from the main body of the American army. In spite of many delays, which enabled Harrison to strengthen his position, colonel Proctor succeeded in greatly weakening the enemy's force, and removing all immediate danger of invasion. Meanwhile Dearborn resolved upon driving the British from Burlington Heights, and cutting off the communication between generals Vincent and Proctor, and on the 5th of June, 4000 men under generals Chandler and Winder, took up their position at Stony Creek, and with full confidence in the superiority of their numbers, prepared to attack general Vincent on the following day. Lieutenant-colonel Harvey, after reconnoitring the enemy's position, proposed attacking it that night, and having obtained permission to do so, succeeded in surprising the American camp, with 704 bayonets; and after killing and wounding a great number of the enemy he retired, carrying with him both Chandler and Winder, and 120 men as prisoners. This affair so thoroughly disconcerted the enemy, that they retreated to Forty Mile Creek, eleven miles distant, and on being threatened by Sir James Yeo, who was advancing with a squadron and a few troops to the support of general Vincent,

they retired to Fort George. From thence lieutenant-colonel Boerstler was sent with 700 men to seize an advanced post of the English at Beaver-dam, but being attacked first by a body of Indians, and afterwards by a few British troops, he surrendered himself and his corps prisoners of war. The campaign continued some time without any event of much moment, excepting the capture, on 3rd June, 1813, of two American vessels, carrying 22 guns, which were taken by the British at Isle aux Noix, after a well contested action of three hours, and some other smaller advantages gained by the British.

On the 11th July a successful attack was made by the British on Black Rock, headed by colonel Bisshopp, who was mortally wounded while re-embarking; and on the 30th of that month colonel Murray destroyed the American barracks at Plattsburg. But at this time the triumphs of the English were changed into reverses. On the 10th of September commodore Perry, with a squadron of 9 vessels mounting 56 guns, captured the British naval force on Lake Erie. Colonel Proctor could therefore no longer obtain supplies, his only means of communication with the British army being by land, several hundred miles through forests.

His situation nearly resembled that of Hull, at Detroit; he had one advantage, however, which Hull had not—the friendship of the Indians, but he strangely delayed his retreat a fortnight after the loss of his fleet, and till the near approach of a superior force of the enemy. On the 5th of October he was only three days' march (56 miles) from Detroit, pursuing his retreat along the Trenché. His force consisted of less than 1,000 British and militia, and about 1,200 Indians, the greater number of whom gradually deserted him, whilst the Americans were upwards of 3,000 strong. He chose his position carefully, hoping thereby to neutralize the effect of superior numbers, but a sudden charge of mounted Kentucky riflemen broke the British line, the whole was thrown into confusion, and a large number of the British were made prisoners. The Indians who still remained with Proctor fought bravely, headed by their chief Tecumthé, who had perseveringly endeavoured to unite all the tribes in a confederacy against the Americans. He is described as singularly brave and generous, and gifted with extraordinary powers of eloquence. He per-

ished in the conflict with many of his faithful followers. The Americans returned to Detroit with their prisoners, and Proctor, with a few stragglers and a number of Indians, retired to Ancaster, and after rallying about 200 men joined the army at Niagara. The American forces gradually collected at the lower ends of Lakes Ontario and Champlain under generals Wilkinson and Hampton, with the intention of making a combined attack on Montreal, while the chief part of the British regular force was in Upper Canada. Major-general Hampton was to advance with 6,000 men from Lake Champlain, and major-general Wilkinson, with 8,000 men, from Grenadier Island, near Sacket's harbour. It was evident that if this attack succeeded, and the command of that city and the surrounding country should be retained by the Americans, Upper Canada was conquered, and every British soldier in it a prisoner, unless he could succeed in fighting his way to Quebec. There was nothing to prevent Wilkinson, with competent pilots for the rapids, from landing on the Island of Montreal with an army completely equipped in three or four days after his leaving Lake Ontario, and Hampton was only a couple of days' march from the St. Lawrence. Some misunderstanding, however, with respect to time appears to have arisen between them. On the 21st of October Hampton entered the province apparently with the intention of penetrating the St. Lawrence, by the river Chateauguay. On the 26th he came upon colonel de Salaberry's position on that river, about 30 miles from the frontier. This officer, a native of Canada, belonging to one of its old and most distinguished families, had served with the British army in various parts of the world. To great activity and personal intrepidity he united military science and experience, and possessed the entire confidence of his little force, which formed the advance of the army, and consisted of about 800 men, chiefly natives of Lower Canada, and composed of fencibles, voltigeurs, militia, and Indians. The enemy, formed principally of new levies, seemed to think that the battle was to be won by field manœuvres, and platoon-firing. Colonel de Salaberry took advantage of all the protection for his men that the choice of position in a thickly wooded country afforded, and poured in a deadly fire, every man making sure of his object; the colonel setting the example. The enemy's loss was considerable, but has never been correctly

ascertained; that of colonel de Salaberry's force was, two killed and sixteen wounded. Hampton, believing himself to be opposed by a large force, retired to the frontier, and thence to Plattsburg, where he remained in a state of inactivity, his army dwindling away by sickness and desertion. General Wilkinson, with his division, which consisted of between 8,000 and 9,000 men, completely equipped and provided, left Grenadier Island on the 5th November in boats and other crafts, and having crossed Lake Ontario entered the St. Lawrence. At Williamsburg he landed a considerable number of troops to clear the banks, and also to lighten the boats while descending the rapids. These delays gave time to detachments from the garrisons of Kingston and Prescott to overtake him, and on the 11th of November a large body of these, under major-general Boyd, encountered colonel Morrison, who headed a much smaller force sent from Kingston and Prescott. The English, after a long contest, were victorious; the Americans retired to their boats, but continued to descend towards Montreal. Near Cornwall, their commander, major-general Wilkinson, received despatches from general Hampton, stating his determination of retreating to Lake Champlain; and finding, moreover, the hostility felt towards the Americans by the population generally, he gave up the idea of attacking Montreal during that campaign, and took up winter quarters near French Mills, on the Salmon river, but from scarcity of provisions was ultimately induced to proceed to Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain. Hostilities were recommenced early in the spring of 1814. Lieutenant-colonel Williams having taken post with 1,500 British on the river Colle, Wilkinson, who had upwards of 4,000 men at Plattsburg, made an unsuccessful attack upon them; and on the 6th of May Sir Gordon Drummond gained another advantage, carrying, though with some loss, the fort of Oswego, with which he captured a considerable quantity of ammunition and stores. The failure of the enemy's attempts on Lower or East Canada, and the course of events in Europe, began to give a new character to the war, and the offensive measures on the side of the United States became almost confined to a part of the Upper Province. Although the British naval force on Lake Ontario had ventured out of port during the preceding campaign, the advantages for naval warfare were entirely on the side of the Americans, who ran up their ships

in a few weeks, and had all their supplies on the spot, whilst the English vessels were built as slowly and regularly as if intended for the ocean, and a great part of the materials were obliged to be sent from England. The chief portion of the American army were assembled on the American frontier under the command of major-general Brown, an officer who had greatly distinguished himself during the war, having been previously known in Lower Canada as a plain farmer and dealer in lumber and potash, and who had commanded Sacket's Harbour when attacked by Sir George Prevost. On the 3rd of July, at the head of between 3,000 and 4,000 men, he crossed into Upper Canada by Black Rock, and obtained possession of Fort Erie by capitulation. He then marched towards Chippawa, where he was met by the advanced guard of major-general Riall, and obliged to retreat to Fort George, and thence in the direction of Burlington heights. The enemy then proceeded to invest Fort George, plundered the inhabitants of the frontier, and destroyed the thriving village of St. David's, but being disappointed of assistance from Sacket's Harbour he fell back upon Chippawa. General Riall, having received reinforcements, advanced, and on the afternoon of the 25th the two armies again met near the Falls, and waged a long and bloody contest with various success until nearly midnight. General Riall had ordered a retreat, when, in the midst of the confusion, lieutenant-general Drummond arrived with fresh troops; and after a new struggle the Americans retired to Fort Erie. The American force engaged in this action, known as the battle of Lundy's Lane, was about 4,000, that of the British, as stated by Drummond, 2,800. The total loss of the former was 854, that of the latter 878. The British army then proceeded to invest Fort Erie, and on the 14th of August Drummond made an unsuccessful attempt to take it by surprise, and lost several of his best officers and bravest men. His total loss was 905, that of the enemy only 84. After this unfortunate affair Drummond converted the siege into a blockade.

The cessation of the European war had enabled England to turn her arms more powerfully against the Americans. While the events just related were taking place important operations were proceeding in other parts of Canada. On the 26th of June, transports arrived at Quebec from Bordeaux with the 6th and 82nd regiments,

They were ordered to the Niagara frontier, where they arrived late in August, having had to march round Lake Ontario. The principal part of the remainder of the troops which arrived from France, were assembled on the Richelieu River, and brigaded with the forces already in that quarter, under General de Rottenburg, for the purpose of carrying into effect instructions from England for offensive operations against the United States. Great exertions had for some time previous been making on both sides, to ensure a superiority on Lake Champlain. On the 3rd of September, the British army, amounting to 11,000 men, under Sir George Prevost, passed the frontier by Odell Town, and reached Plattsburg on the 6th, with trilling opposition, where the American general Macomb occupied a fortified position with 1,500 regulars, and as many of the inhabitants as could be collected from both sides of the Lake. From the 6th to the 11th, cannon were brought up from the rear, and batteries erected by the British.

On the 11th, the British flotilla from Isle aux Noix came up and attacked the American naval force in the bay; the land batteries opened at the same time, and the troops moved to the assault. When they had reached the heights on which the American works were situated, victory declared itself in favour of the American naval force. Sir George Prevost countermanded the orders for the attack; the next morning the whole army retreated, and on the 13th re-entered the province, with a total loss of 235 men, exclusive of deserters, whose number on this, as on every occasion when the British soldiers entered the enemy's country, was considerable.

On the 17th of September, the American forces made a sortie from Fort Erie, which was repulsed, but with severe loss. On the 21st, General Drummond broke up the siege, and retired upon Chippawa, Fort George, and Burlington Heights. On the 17th of October, Sir James Yeo appeared on the Lake, and brought reinforcements and supplies to general Drummond; the American squadron under Chauncey remained in Sacket's Harbour. On the 5th of November, Drummond again advanced upon Fort Erie, and then succeeded in obliging the Americans to evacuate the place. Michilimackinack, which the American superiority on Lake Erie and Lake Huron, enabled them to attack, had been gallantly and successfully

defended. The enemy burnt the establishment of the North West Company at Sault St. Marie, but colonel McDonnell managed to send parties of voyageurs and Indians to the head of the Mississippi, and captured the post of Prairie du Chien. British naval officers and seamen, sent overland from York, had also captured in open boats two American armed schooners on Lake Huron, and preparations were making to secure the command of that lake, and even to recover that of Lake Erie, with which the former communicates by Detroit. The war, meantime, in America had brought about important changes. The British obtained possession of Washington, where they destroyed public edifices and private property, as the Americans had done in Canada. At New Orleans the English were defeated. Both parties began to sigh for peace, and on the 24th of December, 1814, a treaty between the United States and Great Britain was signed at Ghent, which, at length, restored tranquillity to Canada; on the 18th of February, 1815, it was ratified and proclaimed at Washington, and on the 9th of March made known at Quebec by Sir George Prevost.

In April, 1815, Sir G. G. Drummond was appointed to succeed Sir George Prevost; and soon after the Canadian parliament resumed the question of the independence of the judges, and impeached the chief judges of Quebec and Montreal. On the 12th of July, 1816, Sir John Coape Sherbrooke was appointed governor-general; he adopted a conciliatory policy, and in 1818 was instructed by Lord Bathurst, his majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies, to accept the offer previously made by the colonists, of paying the whole civil list out of the colonial revenues. The governor-general, however, merely asked for a sum to meet current expenses, which was granted; new taxes were imposed, of which the Assembly resolved to supervise the future appropriation. Sir John Sherbrooke laid before the Assembly, at their urgent solicitation, a detailed estimate of the civil expenditure, divided under distinct heads. Unfortunately the state of Sir John's health compelled his return to England, and on the 13th of July, 1818, the Duke of Richmond was appointed governor-general. His Grace refused to place detailed estimates before the House of Assembly, and required the House to vote the supplies under branch heads without detail. In this policy he was supported by the Legislative Council, and

the duke by its advice drew upon the receiver-general of the provincial revenues for the sum he required. In September, 1819, the Duke of Richmond died of hydrophobia; on the 18th of June, 1820, the Earl of Dalhousie, who possessed high reputation as a soldier, was of very amiable character, and had been much liked as governor of Nova Scotia, was appointed governor-general of Canada. The noble earl, acting under the advice of his Legislative Council, on being refused by the Assembly £22,000 as a permanent grant, which he required for the public service, unless in detailed items, as an annual bill of supply, drew upon the receiver-general for even a larger sum; and in this he was supported by Earl Bathurst, who, however, recommended economy for the future, and directed two estimates to be prepared—one, including the expenses of civil government, to be defrayed from funds of which the crown claimed the entire disposal; the other and much smaller estimate to embrace divers public objects, over which the House of Assembly was to exercise complete control. This partial concession to the reasonable demands of the representatives of the people was well received, and the money voted accordingly. The French Canadians were grateful for the liberties which they gradually acquired from the British government; and in their constitutional struggles they were aided by the reformers in the House of Assembly in Upper Canada, who had also to contend against what was termed the "family compact" party. Lord Durham thus described the power this party possessed, and the influence it exercised on the government, legislature, and general affairs of the province:—"For a long time this body of men, receiving at times accessions to its numbers, possessed of almost all the highest public offices, by means of which, and of its influence in the Executive Council, it wielded all the powers of government; it maintained influence in the legislature by means of its predominance in the Legislative Council; and it disposed of the large number of petty posts which are in the patronage of the Government all over the province. Successive governors, as they came in their turn, are said to have either submitted quietly to its influence, or, after a short and unavailing struggle, to have yielded to this well-organized party the real conduct of affairs. The bench, the magistracy, the high offices of the Episcopal church, and a great part of the legal pro-

fession, are filled by the adherents of this party: by grant or purchase, they have acquired nearly the whole of the waste lands of the province; they are all-powerful in the chartered banks, and, till lately, shared among themselves almost exclusively all offices of trust and profit. The bulk of this party consists, for the most part, of native-born inhabitants of the colony, or of emigrants who settled in it before the last war with the United States; the principal members of it belong to the church of England, and the maintenance of the claims of that church has always been one of its distinguishing characteristics.

"A monopoly of power so extensive and so lasting could not fail, in process of time, to excite envy, create dissatisfaction, and ultimately provoke attack; and an opposition consequently grew up in the Assembly which assailed the ruling party, by appealing to popular principles of government, by denouncing the alleged jobbing and profusion of the official body, and by instituting inquiries into abuses, for the purpose of promoting reform, and especially economy. The official party not being removed when it failed to command a majority in the Assembly, still continued to wield all the powers of the executive government, to strengthen itself by its patronage, and to influence the policy of the colonial governor and of the colonial department at home. By its secure majority in the Legislative Council, it could effectually control the legislative powers of the Assembly. It could choose its moment for dissolving hostile Assemblies; and could always ensure, for those that were favourable to itself, the tenure of their seats for the full term of the four years allowed by law."

It is, however, due to this party to state, that they did much for the welfare of Canada; and many of the social improvements, which mark the gradual progress of Canada, had their origin in the endeavours of the "family compact," who were, generally speaking, not related to each other, but attached by certain principles, such as those of the old Tory party in England. Of their loyalty there has never been a doubt; but it may be questioned whether their prolonged opposition to the carrying out of principles which the majority of those most interested earnestly and perseveringly desired, has not caused many of the evils which have since befallen Canada.

M. Papineau, at his election for the west

ward of the city of Montreal, in July, 1820, thus indicated the advantages which the Canadians had derived from British rule:—

"Not many days," said M. Papineau, "have elapsed since we assembled on this spot for the same purpose as that which now calls us together—the choice of representatives; the opportunity of that choice being caused by a great national calamity—the decease of that beloved Sovereign who had reigned over the inhabitants of this country since the day they became British subjects; it is impossible not to express the feeling of gratitude for the many benefits received from him, and those of sorrow for his loss, so deeply felt in *this*, as in every other portion of his extensive dominions. And how could it be otherwise, when each year of his long reign has been marked by new favours bestowed upon the country? To enumerate these, and to detail the history of this country for so many years, would occupy more time than can be spared by those whom I have the honour to address. Suffice it then at a glance to compare our present happy situation with that of our fathers on the eve of the day when George the Third became their legitimate monarch. Suffice it to recollect, that under the French government, (internally and externally arbitrary and oppressive,) the interests of this country had been more constantly neglected and mal-administered than any other part of its dependencies. In its estimation, Canada seems not to have been considered as a country which, from fertility of soil, salubrity of climate, and extent of territory, might have been the peaceful abode of a numerous and happy population, but as a military post, whose feeble garrison was condemned to live in a state of perpetual warfare and insecurity, frequently suffering from famine, without trade, or a trade monopolised by privileged companies, public and private property often pillaged, and personal liberty daily violated; when year after year the handful of inhabitants settled in this province were dragged from their homes and families, to shed their blood, and carry murder and havoc from the shores of the great lakes, the Mississippi and the Ohio, to those of Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Hudson's Bay. Such was the situation of our fathers: behold the change! George the Third, a sovereign revered for his moral character, attention to his kingly duties, and love of his subjects, succeeds to Louis XV., a prince then deservedly despised for his debauchery, his inattention to the wants of his people, and his lavish profusion of the public monies upon favourites and mistresses. From that day the reign of the law succeeded to that of violence. From that day the treasures, the navy, and the armies of Great Britain, are mustered to afford us an invincible protection against external danger. From that day the better part of her laws became ours; while our religion, property, and the laws by which they were governed, remain unaltered. Soon after are granted to us the privileges of its free constitution; an infallible pledge, when acted upon, of our internal prosperity. Now religious toleration; trial by jury (that wisest of safeguards ever devised for the protection of innocence); security against arbitrary imprisonment, by the privileges attached to the writ of Habeas Corpus; legal and equal security afforded to all, in their person, honour, and property; the right to obey no other laws than those of our own making and choice, expressed through our representatives;—all these advantages have become our birthright, and shall, I

hope, be the lasting inheritance of our posterity. To secure them let us only act as British subjects and freemen."—*Life of Lord Sydneyham.*

The struggle on the part of the representatives of the people for complete control over the local revenues, and a not unnatural desire on the part of the Canadians, that some of their representatives who possessed their confidence, should be placed in office, or in the Legislative Assembly, grew more urgent, when Sir John Caldwell, the receiver-general in 1823, "became an insolvent, and was found to be indebted to the public to the amount of £100,000." In 1821 the majority of the Assembly denied the right of the crown to appropriate any part of the revenues of the province without their consent; required a reduction of the public expenditure; and that publicity should be given to the revenue receipts and disbursements, which they had vainly claimed during Sir John Caldwell's receivership. Lord Dalhousie expressed strong displeasure at these proceedings; but during his temporary absence Sir Francis Burton, his *locum tenens*, yielded a great point to the Assembly, by sanctioning a supply bill, in which no distinction was made between the civil government and "popular" expenditure, the whole being considered an annual grant under the control of the Assembly. The custom duties collected on imports under an Act of the British parliament in 1774, now amounted to about £31,000 a year; and a smaller amount was raised from the sale of lands and timber, which it was alleged had been much "jobbed" by some of the members of the Legislative Council. The Assembly claimed the entire disposal of these sums, declaring, that as they were contributed by the people, the representatives of the people ought alone to be entrusted with their appropriation. To this Lord Dalhousie objected, and he was supported by Earl Bathurst, who censured the concession made by Sir Francis Burton. On the accession of Lord Goderich (now Earl of Ripon) to the station of Secretary of State for the Colonies in 1827, he directed a proposition to be made to the Assembly, offering the surrender of the disputed revenues, on condition of their granting a civil list in perpetuity of £30,000 per annum. The House of Assembly met to consider this proposition, and elected M. Papineau as its speaker, an appointment which the governor-general refused to confirm, on account of the opposition that

gentleman had previously manifested to the measures of Government. The Assembly persisted in their right to elect their own speaker, and Lord Dalhousie refused to call any session for the winter of 1827-28. As might naturally be expected discontent rose to a great height, and a petition was sent from Canada to the king, signed by 87,000 inhabitants, complaining of the conduct of successive governors, and urging the justice of compliance with the requirements of the Assembly. Mr. Huskisson, then Colonial Minister, moved that the petition should be referred to a select committee of the House of Commons, which was accordingly done—the committee strongly condemned the practice of appropriating large sums of the money levied from the Canadian people, without the concurrence of their Parliament—recommended, that the whole revenue of the colony should be placed at the disposal of the Assembly—that the governor, judges, and Executive Council should be independent of the annual votes of the Assembly—that persons having the confidence of the people, should be liberally viewed by the crown in its appointments to the Legislative and Executive Councils—and stated generally, that the complaints of the colonists were well-founded, and deserved redress. The report of the committee of the Imperial Parliament gave great satisfaction in the colony, and the Assembly ordered four hundred copies to be printed and distributed among their constituents.

Sir James Kempt was sent out in September, 1828, in the place of Lord Dalhousie; he treated the colonists with frankness and liberality, added new members to the Executive Council, and requested the judges to retire from the Legislative Council, which they refused to do, though they promised to take no part in its deliberations. In 1829 the Assembly cut off several thousand pounds from the estimates laid before them by the governor, and Sir George Murray, then Colonial Secretary, did not disallow the act. Sir James Kempt, to the great regret of the colonists, quitted Canada in 1830. He was succeeded by Lord Aylmer. The Act of Parliament which was necessary to sanction the proposed transfer of authority over the public purse was unfortunately delayed by the death of George IV. and other circumstances. Lord Goderich, who was again at the head of the Colonial Office, on the 24th December, 1830, announced through

the governor-general, his intention of bringing a bill into Parliament to secure to the Assembly the disposal of the colonial revenues, and requiring in return a fixed civil list of £19,100. His lordship, however, intimated that the timber, territorial, and other casual revenues, which had amounted to £11,231, were to remain at the disposal of the crown, and to be employed chiefly in the maintenance of the Established Church. The Assembly thereupon passed a resolution that, "under no circumstances, and upon no consideration whatever would they abandon or compromise their claim over the whole public revenue."

On the 8th March, 1831, the House presented a long list of grievances to the governor-general, which his lordship transmitted home, admitting that many of them were well-founded. The Imperial Parliament then passed an act giving the Colonial Assembly full power over the colonial revenues, but leaving the question of the civil list still unsettled. On the 20th January, 1832, the Assembly decreed that the judges should be independent of the crown, and should have permanent salaries assigned them, but that only the chief justice should hold a seat in the Executive Council. By a large majority, on the motion of Mr. Neilson, it was resolved that the salaries should be drawn in the first instance from the casual and territorial revenues. When the bill came home Lord Goderich, desirous of preserving to the crown the disposal of the casual and territorial revenues, refused the royal assent, which greatly exasperated matters in the colony; the Assembly declined to do more than pass *annual* supply-bills for the governor and other branches of the executive, and confidently referred to the decision of the committee of the House of Commons, by which his majesty's ministers had promised to be guided. The popular party then commenced a direct attack on the Legislative Council—attached the names of individuals to the salaries voted, and appended the condition that several offices were not to be held by one individual—a not unreasonable demand, since there were instances of several distinct appointments being held by the same person. This measure was rejected in England. So far the Assembly had justice on their side; but, irritated by the opposition their wishes met with at home, they proceeded to demand the *abolition* of the Legislative Council, and the substitution of a Council elected from the body of

the people; the franchise to be £20 in the towns and £10 in the country; a stated income to be a necessary qualification for the Legislative Councillors, and their functions to last for six years. This proposition somewhat resembled that suggested by Mr. Fox in 1790.

Lord Stanley, then Secretary of State for the Colonies, announced, that he deemed such a measure inconsistent with monarchical institutions, and therefore could never advise his majesty to consent thereto. He also censured the Legislative Council for its intemperate language, and intimated "the possibility that events might unhappily force upon Parliament the exercise of its supreme authority, to compose the internal dissension of the colonies, which might lead to a modification of the charter of the Canadas." This was considered a threat by the Assembly, and in 1831 they resented it by refusing to pass any supply bill, and M. Dennis Viger was deputed to proceed to London, to lay before his majesty's government a detailed statement of the grievances of the colonists.

Mr. Spring Rice, now Lord Monteagle, having succeeded Lord Stanley as Colonial Minister, intimated his intention of renouncing the disputed revenues, according to the recommendation of the parliamentary committee; but asked for time to consider the whole subject. M. Papineau, and other leaders, therefore, deferred any strong measures, but complained that the administration was carried on as usual, and that £31,000 had been advanced from the military chest for the payment of the civil servants, whereby their responsibility to the Assembly was evaded. Lord Stanley justified this act on the ground that the civil servants would otherwise have been left without any salary, through no fault of their own, pending the decision of the crown. Lord Monteagle afterwards declared, that on the very day when, through the change of ministry, he quitted the Colonial Office, he had a measure to submit to the cabinet, involving the surrender of the revenue point at issue.

Sir Robert Peel on his accession to office in 1835, determined on sending a special commission to Canada, for the examination of existing grievances, and the adjustment of differences, and he offered to yield the casual and territorial revenues, on condition of a civil list being fixed for at least seven years. Before this arrangement was matured, Sir Robert Peel's administration

was succeeded by that of Lord Melbourne, who, adhering in some measure to the same plan, sent out the Earl of Gosford, Sir Charles Edward Grey, and Sir George Gipps, as commissioners, Lord Gosford to be governor in the room of Lord Aylmer. Lord Glenelg, then colonial secretary, expressed his readiness to surrender the disposal of the entire revenue to the Assembly, on the settlement of an independent provision for the judges, and the salaries of the civil officers being fixed for ten years. The whole proceeds of the sale of unclaimed lands were to be placed at the disposal of the Assembly, but government could not consent to part with the management of them, abolish the Land Company, or agree to the formation of an Elective Legislative Council. The non-interference of the metropolitan power in the internal affairs of the colonies, was fully conceded in Lord Glenelg's instructions to Earl Gosford, in July, 1835; and in a despatch written in the same year to Sir F. Head, as lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada, his lordship thus forcibly expresses himself: "*Parliamentary legislation on any subject of exclusively internal concern, in any British colony, possessing a Representative Assembly, is, as a general rule, unconstitutional. It is a right of which the exercise is reserved for extreme cases, in which necessity at once creates and justifies the exception.*" Respecting the Elective Council, Lord Glenelg stated to Earl Gosford and to Sir F. Head, "the king is most unwilling to admit as open to debate the question, whether one of the vital principles of the Provincial Government shall undergo alteration;" but his majesty would not absolutely close the avenue of the inquiry, even though "for the present he saw no reasonable ground of doubt."

Lord Glenelg by not more decidedly expressing his opinion on this important point, left great latitude to Lord Gosford, who though a good and amiable man, was quite unfit for the difficult and responsible position in which he was placed. He is stated to have coquetted with the leaders of the Assembly: invited them to his table; declared that "to be acceptable to the great body of the people, was one of the most essential elements of fitness for public station;" intimated his readiness to place the whole revenues at the disposal of the Assembly, on the conditions before mentioned; stated that all grievances were to be redressed: that the commissioners were not

precluded from entering into an inquiry on still graver matters; and, in short, led the French party to believe, that the Elective Legislative Council would be ultimately conceded. The party in the Legislative Council opposed to the Assembly, threw out menaces of rebellion, but the Assembly intimated that they would grant the three years' arrears and a half year in advance. This amicable state of things was unfortunately of short continuance, being entirely changed when Sir F. Head, with more straightforward policy, made public in Upper Canada, where he was lieutenant-governor, the previously quoted passage from Lord Glenelg's instructions, respecting the Elective Legislative Council, which Lord Gosford had withheld. M. Papineau, and his supporters, declared themselves to have been wilfully misled; the Assembly refused to grant more than a half-year's supply, clogged with conditions. The Legislative Council, sure of support from home, threw out the supply bill, and every other sent up to them, including that for the annual appropriation of funds devoted to national education in Lower Canada.

Stimulated by popular addresses and ultra democratic counsels, the Assembly passed the bounds of constitutional opposition; the language of the majority became violent in the extreme, fraught with denunciations of all British rule, and accompanied by treasonable appeals to the inhabitants. On the 6th March, 1837, Lord John Russell moved a series of resolutions, with the intention of bringing about a settlement, but the death of king William IV. intervened before Parliament had arrived at any decision; and as it was deemed inadvisable that the first measures of the government of our young queen should be in any degree coercive, the money for the payment of the colonial civil servants was advanced from the British exchequer, to be replaced out of the £142,000 locked up in the Canadian coffers.

In the mean time public meetings were held, and preparations were evidently making to intimidate the Government. Lord Gosford called the House of Assembly together on the 18th of August, 1837; but, unfortunately, the promised change in the Legislative and Executive Councils had not then been fulfilled; the division on government questions were in the proportions of 63 to 13, and an address of the most determined hostility was carried by 46 to 31. The leaders prepared for insurrection, and cited the example of the United States. County

meetings were convened, and the language used by the leaders being very violent, Lord Gosford dismissed 18 magistrates and 35 officers of militia. The malcontents issued a proclamation, declaring that the "wicked designs of British authorities have severed all ties of feeling for an unfeeling mother country," and that the struggle was for a democracy. Active training was going on in some districts, and the people elected their own magistrates and militia officers. The language of the press on both sides was almost equally ill-judged. A series of letters were published in the *Montreal Herald*, by Adam Thom, A.M., entitled "*Anti-Gallic*," addressed to His Excellency the Earl of Gosford, Governor-in-Chief of the Canadas.—By Camillus." These letters were "reprinted for gratuitous distribution in the Lower Provinces and in the United Kingdom." In them the whole French population of Canada are treated with sovereign contempt; and the language applied to them—that of "dastards, dupes, miserable wretches, tools, slaves, cowards, assassins, demagogues, traitors, and rebels," was circulated in every direction; the governor-general, the secretary of state for the colonies, and even the sovereign, are spoken of in terms well calculated to diminish the force of all authority; and to induce even the French to believe, that the sooner such a government was subverted, the better for both the English and French races.

At Montreal a riot took place between the "sons of liberty" and a "loyal association" formed in opposition to them; the former were defeated, and many of them wounded; the office of the *Vindicator* (a French newspaper) was destroyed, and the "loyalists" made a vigorous attempt to burn the house of M. Papineau, the democratic speaker of the House of Assembly. Exaggerated reports of these proceedings were spread through the distant counties, and caused much agitation. The Government issued warrants for the arrest of twenty-six persons, including M.M. Papineau and Viger, and five other members of the legislature. But only nine of the warrants were executed; M. Papineau and others concealed themselves, or fled the country. Instead of sending an efficient military force to aid the civil power in the execution of the warrants, a party of 18 mounted militia volunteers were sent into the centre of the most disturbed districts, St. John's-on-the-Richelieu, to effect the arrest of two ringleaders, which they

did; but on returning to Montreal, were interrupted near Longueuil by 300 well-armed men, who opened a fire from behind a high fence, and wounded several of the volunteer militia; the remainder fled, and the two prisoners were rescued.

The villages of St. Denis and St. Charles were said to be the head-quarters of the rebels. Lieutenant-colonel Gore in proceeding to St. Denis, was obliged to take a circuitous route, and arrived after a long march through a marshy and difficult country, where his men often found themselves knee-deep in mud. The rebels, who were posted in a large stone house at the entrance of the village, opened a fire on the British troops, who vainly attempted to batter down the house with round shot from a howitzer. Captain Markham was wounded while leading the advance, and colonel Gore finding his ammunition failing, and his men overpowered with fatigue, having lost six killed, ten wounded, and six missing, left his cannon in the road, and retreated to Montreal. These two ill-conducted proceedings gave an unfortunate prestige to the commencement of the insurrection. If the leaders had been immediately arrested, and a sufficient force sent into the disturbed districts, which might easily (by reason of their limited extent), have been accomplished, there would, probably have been no outbreak whatever. While colonel Gore was at St. Denis, colonel Wetherall proceeded to the attack of the village of St. Charles; but being delayed by the badness of the roads, procured another company of regulars from Chambly, and on the 26th proceeded to attack about 1,000 to 1,500 insurgents, protected by fortified houses and palisades. In an hour the troops were masters of the town, 300 of the insurgents were slain, the leaders fled to the United States, and colonel Gore, with a strong force, entered St. Denis unmolested. On the frontier of the United States 200 "sympathizers" passed into Canada, but were speedily driven back by captain Kemp and the volunteers of Missisquoi county; and in a fortnight the whole of the six counties south of Montreal, which had been the chief seats of the rebellion, were restored to tranquillity. Sir J. Colborne then proceeded to two districts north of Montreal, called the "Two Mountains," and Terrebonne; and on the 11th of December marched with 1,300 regulars and volunteers against the village of St. Eustache, where about 400 of the insurgents, under a

leader named Girod, were strongly posted in a church and some neighbouring buildings. These buildings were fired, and the rebels driven out with great slaughter; the British losing only one man killed, and nine wounded. Girod committed suicide. Colonel Maitland marched to St. Benoit, a village in the Grand Brûlé district, which was stated to be the focus of insurrection; but a deputation from the village met colonel Maitland, and tendered submission. Thus terminated the rebellion of Lower Canada in 1837. Many of the loyal and respectable inhabitants, French and English, on refusing to join the rebels, had been obliged to fly the country, and, in several instances, the mob plundered their houses. On the return of the "loyalists" with the British troops, they wreaked their vengeance on different villages, and many houses and much property belonging to innocent persons were destroyed.

Attention must now be directed to Upper or Western Canada. The "high tory and family compact party," had long ruled the colony, retained among themselves the seats in the Legislative Council, and preserved a dominant influence in the House of Assembly. Lord Sydenham remarked, that "members were everywhere chosen only with reference to the extent of jobbery for their particular district, which they could carry on. Whoever happens to lead a party in the House of twelve or fourteen members, may at once obtain a majority for his political views, by jobbing with other members for votes upon them, or by rejecting their jobs as the penalty of refusal oust them from their seats. This, indeed, is admitted by the best men of all parties, and especially of the popular side." A reform party had been rising in Upper Canada, opposed to the exclusive privileges naturally preserved by the British loyalists from the United States, who had settled in the colony after the War of Independence, and to whom the crown had, in return for their loyalty, granted various favours. The reformers were chiefly settlers of a recent date, emigrants from the United Kingdom, who, knowing the value of two legislative chambers, sought, not as the Lower Canadians did, to have two chambers elected by the people, but that the Legislative Council should be, in some degree, rendered responsible to, and work in harmony with, the Legislative Assembly. In the Upper as in the Lower province, the neglect of making

due and timely concessions to the public feeling, caused extreme irritation, and when those concessions were ultimately made, they were looked upon as granted from fear rather than from a sense of justice; instead of giving satisfaction, they begat new and unreasonable demands, and the people were easily led to believe by demagogues, or enthusiasts, that anything might be obtained by agitation.

The stoppage of the supplies by the Assembly of East Canada in 1833, the manner in which the proceeding was viewed at home, and the ascendancy of the reform radical party in 1834, led to the adoption of a similar measure in West Canada in 1836, and great exasperation was the result. A small party, headed by an unprincipled demagogue, named Mackenzie, avowed their desire of separating West Canada from Great Britain, and joining it to the United States.

In 1836 Sir Francis Head, then one of the poor-law commissioners in England, was selected by lord Glenelg for the government of Upper Canada. Possessed of considerable intellectual power, much force of character, strong national feelings, and great command of language, Sir Francis threw himself on the people, appealed to their good sense, stated fully his instructions from the minister of the crown, appointed three popular members to the executive council, and promised practical and immediate redress of all real grievances. The people of West Canada almost unanimously responded to the appeal, and when he dissolved the Assembly in May, 1837, the majority of those returned were decidedly favourable to constitutional government. In order to manifest confidence in the people, Sir F. Head was desirous that every soldier of the troops of the line should be removed from the province, and when a requisition was made from the Lower province, to know how many soldiers he could spare, his answer was, "all." The lieutenant-governor seems, however, to have allowed his generous enthusiasm to carry him beyond the bounds of prudence, when he caused the public arms to be deposited in the town-hall of Toronto, under charge of the mayor, without any guard for their protection; and this encouraged Mackenzie to collect 500 or 600 desperadoes on the 4th December, 1837, for a night, or morning attack on Toronto, so as to surprise the city. The rebels assembled about four miles from Toronto, at a

tavern, and endeavoured to arrest all on their way to the city, to prevent their intended assault from being made known. A distinguished officer, colonel Moodie, while passing the tavern was wounded by the rebels, and died in a few days. They also attempted to seize alderman Powell, but after shooting one of the rebels he escaped to Toronto, gave the alarm, and awoke the lieutenant-governor, who, on arriving at the town-hall, found the chief justice with a musket on his shoulder, surrounded by several other brave men ready armed, to resist any attack. Mackenzie's numbers were, as usual, greatly magnified; some stated that 3000, others that 5000 were advancing, and accordingly Sir Francis Head, and the citizens, posted themselves in the Town-hall, awaiting the morning's dawn. Mackenzie, fearing that alderman Powell would alarm the city, did not advance. On the 5th of December, 300 loyalists were mustered; lieutenant-colonel Allan McNab arrived with 60 men from the Gore district; by evening there were 500 armed volunteers assembled, and the militia were summoned from all parts of the country. On the 6th the lieutenant-governor sent to the rebels, urging them to lay down their arms, and thus prevent the effusion of blood. Mackenzie said he would only do so on condition of a "National Convention" being called, to which he required the assent of the lieutenant-governor before two o'clock on the ensuing day. On the 7th, the lieutenant-governor and the armed volunteers of Toronto, headed by lieutenant-colonel A. McNab and Mr. Justice McLean, the speaker of the House of Assembly, and his predecessor, whose clerk officiated as adjutant-general, marched against the rebels, who had taken their stand on an elevated position near the tavern. They were soon routed, several were killed; Mackenzie was the first to seek safety in flight, and thus began and ended the rebellion in Upper Canada. In the meantime the loyalty of the inhabitants was proved by the alacrity with which the militia, to the number of 10,000, hastened towards Toronto, but their services happily were not required, and they returned in peace to their homes, excepting a detachment commanded by colonel McNab, which proceeded to the London district, where it was said a notorious leader, named Ducomb, had assembled some followers. On the approach of the loyalists, the rebels submitted, and 300 laid down their arms.

The exertions of colonel McNab, and other gentlemen in Canada, and of the militia throughout the province, deserve high commendation. The queen expressed her majesty's royal approval of the timely exertions and gallant conduct of colonel McNab, by conferring on him the honour of knighthood.

Both Western and Eastern Canada were kept for some time in a state of excitement by the intrigues of a body of "Sympathizers," from the United States, some perhaps actuated by mistaken enthusiasm, but the greater number stimulated by the hope of plunder, and the promise of large tracts of land from Mackenzie, who assumed to himself the title of "Head of the Provisional Government of Canada," and joined the rebel standard at Navy Island, situated in the Niagara Channel. The rebels obtained 13 pieces of cannon, arms, and men to the number of 1,000, which were supplied from the United States, and conveyed to the island by an American steamer called the *Caroline*. Colonel McNab arrived with several thousand militia on the shore opposite Navy Island, but was unable to cross for want of boats. The United States Government sent general Scott to the frontier, and issued proclamations with a view to check this inexcusable invasion of the territory of a friendly power. Colonel McNab very properly instructed an officer of the Royal Navy, named Drew, to intercept the *Caroline* on her passage between Navy Island and the American shore while conveying recruits and stores to Mackenzie. Drew was unable to accomplish this, but he resolved to prevent the *Caroline* from being any longer made the instrument of annoyance to the flag of his country; during the night, with a small band of determined men, he attacked the steamer while moored to the American shore; carried her by boarding; killed or made prisoners all who resisted; and placed the remainder safely on shore. Drew then towed the obnoxious vessel into the middle of the stream, set her on fire, and sent her a blazing wreck over the Falls of Niagara, a fitting retribution for the unwarrantable proceedings in which the vessel had been engaged. The State of New York made a great disturbance in the matter; seized a man named McLeod, who falsely and foolishly boasted, in an American tavern, that he had been present at the burning of the *Caroline*. The mob refused to allow him to be bailed at Lockport; he was tried for his life, and but for the fear of war with England would have been found

guilty and hanged. Mackenzie was driven from Navy Island by the militia, aided by some regular troops and artillery; and the energetic remonstrances of the English government at length induced the United States' authorities to arrest Mackenzie and Van Ranselaer; but another rebel, named Sutherland, took refuge on the island of Bois Blanc, from whence he was soon driven into the United States; and a vessel containing supplies, and rebels dignified by military titles, was captured. While these events were occurring, her majesty's government determined on the suspension of the constitution of East Canada until time could be obtained to decide on the future form of government for the province, and a council was named by the Queen to exercise the legislative functions until 1840, whose enactments were to last only until the 1st November, 1842. The Earl of Durham, then recognized in England as the head of the Reform party in the House of Peers, who possessed high reputation as a statesman, was known to have directed much of his attention to colonial subjects, whose manners were popular, who had a strong love of justice, and ardent patriotic feelings, was induced, at the urgent request of her majesty's government, to proceed to Canada, for the settlement of its troubled affairs.

Lord Durham was descended from the Lambton family, which existed in the county Durham at the time of the Conquest; but several ancestral records having been destroyed in the civil wars, the regular pedigree of the family can only be traced from the twelfth century. The heads of the house of Lambton for many years represented Durham in Parliament, and some of the younger branches served with distinction in the army. William Henry Lambton, born in 1764, was a stanch Whig, and distinguished himself in and out of parliament as the supporter of reform. In 1792 he was chairman of the "Society of Friends of the People associated for the purpose of obtaining Parliamentary Reform;" and when his own views and that of the society he represented were mis-stated, he defended himself in the words which have been so frequently quoted by his party, "From a state of confusion I have everything to lose and nothing to gain, and I must hope that neither my head is so weak, nor my heart so wicked, as to seek the misery of others at so great a personal risk. All I wish is to see this happy constitution reformed upon its own principles, *that every reparation may*

be made in the style of the original building." Mr. Lambton uniformly opposed British interference in the affairs of France; had his advice, and that of other great men, been attended to, England would not now be suffering under a debt of £800,000,000. He opposed the nefarious slave trade, and all measures of a cruel or oppressive nature; and, unhappily for his country, died at Pisa, 30th November, 1797, of consumption, at the age of 37. The same principles evidently actuated the conduct of his son, John George, afterwards created Earl of Durham, who was born 12th April, 1792, educated at Eton, and elected, when of age, as the representative of the county Durham. He followed in the steps of his father, and in 1821 introduced to the House of Commons a plan of Parliamentary Reform, somewhat similar to the measure adopted in 1831-2. In 1828 Mr. Lambton was created Baron Durham; on the accession of his father-in-law, the late Earl Grey, to the station of prime minister in 1830, Lord Durham became cabinet minister, with the office of Lord Privy Seal. In 1833 he was created an Earl; in 1835 sent on a special mission to Russia, whence he returned in 1837; and in 1838, with the approval of all parties, was deputed by his sovereign to represent her majesty in Canada.

His lordship arrived at Quebec 29th May, 1838, as governor-general of all the provinces of British North America, and high commissioner for "the adjustment of certain important questions depending in the provinces of East and West Canada, respecting the form and future government of the said province." The reception given to the new governor-general and high commissioner was most cordial; he visited all the principal stations as far as Niagara, and instituted full enquiries into every subject connected with the Canadas. The result was the justly famous "Report," dated "London, 31st January, 1839," which received the approbation of the queen for the "attention devoted to this important subject, and for the full and comprehensive view taken of the various interests comprised in it." The report fills 246 large 8vo pages, and, in relation to colonies, is one of the most important state documents ever issued. Many parts of it are said to be the work of the late lamented Charles Buller, who, with several other able men, accompanied Lord Durham to Canada, and assisted in diverting the minds of the people from theoretical

changes in the constitution to practical reforms, by which the union of the provinces was ultimately facilitated.

Three kinds of union were proposed by several parties in British America:—

First. A federal union of all the provinces, each retaining its existing separate legislature and most of its powers of internal legislation,—the federal power to be exercised only in matters of general concern, as expressly ceded by each of the constituent Colonies, such as custom duties, distribution of general revenues, postal arrangements, prices of land, monies, weights, measures, local laws, railroads, &c.

Second. A legislative union, or complete incorporation, of all the British provinces in North America under one legislature, exercising authority over all, as the Parliament of the United Kingdom does over England, Scotland, and Ireland; such united legislature to be, of course, subject in imperial matters to the British crown and Parliament.

Third. A union of Upper and Lower Canada alone, which would, to a great extent, amalgamate the French of the Lower or Eastern province with the Anglo-Saxon race in the Upper or Western province; would enable both to co-operate for all common purposes; give Upper Canada a communication with the sea; share the cost of her public works with the Lower province; supply the means of conducting the colonial government on an economical and efficient scale; increase the responsibility of the Executive; and give the deliberations of the united provincial legislature more weight than before with the imperial government.

Lord Durham, after carefully weighing the arguments in favour of each proposition, adopted a modification of the second and third; and urged that no time should be lost in proposing to Parliament a bill for repealing the act 31 Geo. III., restoring the union of the Canadas as one province, and under one legislature; and that the bill should contain provisions by which any or all the other colonies in North America might on application, with the consent of Canada, and on such terms as might be agreed on, join the united legislature. Lord Durham believed, that the establishment of a comprehensive system of government, and of an effectual union between all the different provinces in British North America, would produce an important effect on the general feelings of their inhabitants, by giving them some nationality of their own, and by ele-

vating these small communities into a society, which they would be unwilling to see absorbed even into one more powerful, such as the adjacent United States.

In support of the proposition of a legislative union of all the colonies, the Earl of Durham laid before the queen the following remarkable letter from the Duke of Kent, dated Kensington Palace, 30th Nov., 1814, which his lordship prefaced with the following remarks:—it may be added, that had the views entertained and urged by his royal highness on his majesty's government in 1814 been adopted, British North America would in all human probability be far more advanced in social prosperity than it now is; the French colonists would have been silently amalgamated with those of British descent; two rebellions, and the consequent expenditure of blood and treasure prevented; and the foundations of internal peace and good government ere this consolidated:—

"The views on which I found my support of a comprehensive union have long been entertained by many persons in these Colonies, whose opinion is entitled to the highest consideration. I cannot, however, refrain from mentioning the sanction of such views by one whose authority Your Majesty will, I may venture to say, receive with the utmost respect. Mr. Sewell, the late Chief Justice of Quebec, laid before me an autograph letter addressed to himself by Your Majesty's illustrious and lamented father, in which his Royal Highness was pleased to express his approbation of a similar plan then proposed by that gentleman. *No one better understood the interests and character of these Colonies than his Royal Highness*; and it is with peculiar satisfaction, therefore, that I submit to Your Majesty's perusal the important document which contains his Royal Highness's opinion in favour of such a scheme:—

* Kensington Palace, 30 Nov. 1814.

"MY DEAR SEWELL,

"I have this day had the pleasure of receiving your note of yesterday, with its interesting enclosure: nothing can be better arranged than the whole thing is, *or more perfectly I cannot wish*; and, when I see an opening, it is fully my intention to hint the matter to Lord Bathurst, and put the paper into his hands, without, however, telling him from whom I have it, though I shall urge him to have some conversation with you relative to it. Permit me, however, just to ask you whether it was not an oversight in you to state that there are *five* Houses of Assembly in the British Colonies in North America? for if I am not under an error, there are *six*, viz. Upper and Lower Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, the islands of Prince Edward and Cape Breton. Allow me also to beg of you to put down the proportions in which you think the thirty members of the Representative Assembly ought to be furnished by each province; and, finally, to suggest whether you would not think two Lieutenant Governors, with two Executive Councils, sufficient for the Executive Government of the whole, viz. one for the two Canadas, and one for Nova

Scotia and New Brunswick, comprehending the small dependencies of Cape Breton and Prince Edward's Island; the former to reside at Montreal, and the latter at whichever of the two situations may be considered most central for the two provinces, whether Annapolis Royal or Windsor. But, at all events, should you even consider four Executive Governments, and four Executive Councils requisite, I presume there cannot be a question of the expediency of comprehending the two small islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence with Nova Scotia.

"Believe me ever to remain, with the most friendly regard,

"My dear Sewell, yours faithfully,
(Signed) "EDWARD."

Lord Durham recommended that a general executive on an improved principle should be established, together with a supreme court of appeal for all the North American colonies; that the Legislative Council be revised by Parliament, so as to secure not only its effective working, but its acting as a useful check on the popular branch of the legislature, and thus prevent a repetition of those collisions which had already caused such dangerous excitement. Whether the governor-general's ideas were favourable to an Elective Legislative Council, does not appear; but it is evident that he was adverse to their existing constitution. The principle of a responsible executive was strongly enforced by his lordship, who contended that all the principal officers of the government, except the representative of the crown and his secretary, should be responsible to the united legislature; that the governor should be instructed he must carry on his government by heads of departments, in whom the legislature reposed confidence, and that "*he must look for no support from home in any contest with the legislature, except on points involving strictly imperial interests.*"

The governor-general rightly advocated the establishment of the independence of the judges, by giving them the same tenure of office and security of income as that enjoyed in England; advised that *all the revenues of the crown*, except those derived from the sale of crown lands (which he wished confided to imperial authority for the promotion of emigration), should at once be given up to the united legislature, on the concession of an adequate civil list, and that no money votes should be allowed to originate without the previous consent of the crown; the governor-general also suggested that the Act of Union should repeal past provisions with respect to the clergy reserves, and define the application of the funds arising

therefrom. The necessity of local government by elective bodies was not overlooked by him, and the advantages of a large and beneficent system of emigration for the relief of the mother country, as well as for the benefit of the colonies, was powerfully urged: Lord Durham said, "I see no reason for doubting that by good government, and the adoption of a sound system of colonization, the British possessions in North America may be made the means of conferring on the suffering classes of the mother country many of the blessings which have hitherto been supposed to be peculiar to the social state of the new world." The establishment of a steam-packet communication between Halifax and England was strongly advocated by the governor-general, and also the formation of a railroad from Halifax to Quebec. To the assertions made that it was probable a colonial legislature thus strong and self-governing would desire to abandon the connection with Great Britain, the noble earl replied, that, on the contrary, he believed that the cessation on our part from undue interference, would strengthen the present bond of feelings and interests, and that the connection would only become more durable and advantageous, by having more of equality, of freedom, and of local independence. He looked to the increased power and weight that would be given to the Canadas by union, as the *only* means of fostering such a national feeling throughout them, as would effectually counterbalance whatever tendencies may now exist towards separation; and as a true lover of freedom, he nobly added— "But, at any rate, our first duty is to secure the well-being of our colonial countrymen; and if in the hidden decrees of that wisdom by which the world is ruled, it is written that these countries are not for ever to remain portions of the empire, we owe it to our honour to take good care that when they separate from us, they should not be the only countries on the American continent in which the Anglo-Saxon race shall be found unfit to govern itself." While engaged in the fulfilment of his highly important mission, the governor-general, with a view to bring about an amnesty and restore internal peace, offered to several of the leaders in the late rebellion, charged with high treason, that if they made a confession of guilt, voluntarily deported themselves to Bermuda, remained there under strict surveillance, and agreed not to return to Canada, they should not be put on their trial, for which

indeed it would have been difficult to obtain an impartial jury. The prisoners, including Wolfred Nelson, Bouchette, Gauvin, Viger, and others, then lying in the jail of Montreal, accepted these conditions, and signed a paper, promising to abide by them. Papineau, Côté, Gagnon, and several others implicated in the late rebellion, had left the country. The conduct of Lord Durham in this matter created much excitement in the House of Lords, and was used as a weapon of party politics by the opponents of the then existing administration. Lord Brougham, viewing the subject as a lawyer, introduced a bill into the House of Lords, which declared the ordinance passed by Lord Durham and his Council, viz., 2 Vic. c. 1, entitled, an "ordinance to provide for the security of the province of Canada" illegal, because it adjudged men worthy of death without a trial, and sentenced them to transportation to a colony beyond the jurisdiction of the governor-general. Lord Melbourne, then prime minister, opposed the passing of this bill, but her majesty's government was defeated by a majority in the House of Lords. The ordinance was annulled, and an Act of Indemnity for Lord Durham and his Council was passed. Her majesty's government, in transmitting the announcement of these proceedings to the governor-general, accompanied it by strong expressions of general approbation and unaltered confidence in the administration of his lordship. Lord Durham, who had previously received despatches, formally conveying to him assurances of the satisfaction which *all* his measures, *including the ordinance and proclamation relating to the political prisoners, had given to her majesty's government*, complained bitterly of these proceedings; asserted the legality of the ordinance; and declared with a degree of asperity which the circumstances of the case excuse, though they may not be deemed a sufficient justification:—that the ordinance of the special Council for sending the prisoners to Bermuda, and the proclamation of amnesty issued on the day of the coronation of her majesty, were parts of the same measure, and were divided solely for the purpose of imposing on the governor-general and his Council all that required legislation and was of a penal nature, and of making all that partook of mercy and kindness the act of the queen; that consequently the disallowance of the ordinance had rendered null all the *repressive* portion of his policy, and that the uni-

versal proclamation of amnesty, limited by no exceptions save those now invalidated, placed the leaders of the rebellion precisely in the same position which they occupied before their unsuccessful attempt. Under these adverse and discouraging circumstances, the governor-general did not consider that he could usefully remain longer in Canada,—he felt that his authority was weakened—that both the act of indemnity and the annulling of the ordinance were rebukes which would damage his future administration, and he deemed it due to his character to return to England at once, especially as lieutenant-general Sir John Colborne, his predecessor, was still in the province as commander of the forces, and no injury whatever could accrue to the public service by the resignation of the governor-general and his departure for England. The noble earl never recovered the shock which he sustained by these proceedings in Canada, and he died in England, 28th July, 1840.

I may perhaps be excused for inserting here the following remarks, written at the period of his death, when examining the public proceedings of one of the best friends of the colonies, and most earnest promoters of colonization, which this century has produced—to whose liberality England mainly owes our present possession of New Zealand:—

“By birth and inclination Lord Durham was one of the earliest advocates of political and popular reform, and to his credit be it said, he was ever foremost to aid the cause of the oppressed. At a period when few men stood forward to oppose the encroachments of ministerial power, Lord Durham was always the staunch opponent of oppression, whether individual or national. Endowed with a generous disposition, he was prompt to relieve distress, and unhesitatingly spent his wealth on objects which he thought conducive to the good of his country. There was no niggard or parsimonious spirit in his proceedings, whenever it could be proved that money or energy could advance the cause he took in hand; and an unsullied integrity, and a lofty patriotism, were among the distinguishing characteristics of this lamented nobleman.”

The departure of Lord Durham, the knowledge of his first act having been disallowed at home, and probably an artful misrepresentation to the Canadian people, of the reasons which led to his retirement, induced the malecontents to endeavour to effect a

general rising in the counties of Montreal on the 3rd of November; but the attempt failed; except at Napierville, where about 1000 were collected under three rebel leaders, named Dr. Robert Nelson, Côté, and Gagnon, who detached 400 men to the frontier, to open a communication with the “sympathisers” in the United States. A body of British volunteers near the frontier, attacked and defeated the rebels; Dr. Nelson marched with 900 men to aid his colleagues, but the British volunteers posted at Odell Town chapel, to the number of 200, checked his advance, and after an action of two hours and a half, the rebels retreated with the loss of 100 men in killed and wounded; the loyalists had 1 officer and 5 men killed, and 9 wounded.

Major-general Sir James McDonnell, with seven regiments of the line, marched on Napierville; the enemy dispersed without firing a shot; but subsequently made a stand at Beauharnois, from which they were driven by a detachment composed of 1000 men of the regular troops and Glengarry fencibles, with the loss of two killed and two wounded. Within one week (on the 11th of November) major-general McDonnell announced the restoration of tranquillity in the Lower province. In the Upper province Sir Francis Head resigned the office of lieutenant-governor, in consequence of Lord Glenelg's disapprobation of his removal of Judge Ri doubt from the bench, on account of the expression of democratic principles, and of his declining to raise to the bench Mr. Bidwell, late speaker of the House of Assembly, and a leader of the opposition. The retirement of Sir F. Head was much regretted in Canada: he was succeeded by Sir George Arthur, who had acquired considerable experience as chief superintendent in Honduras, and as governor of Van Diemen's Island, and whose steady and consistent conduct, excellent business habits, and conciliatory manners, had acquired for him in each position, the esteem of the people, and the approbation of the home authorities.

In the beginning of June more than 1000 American plunderers and bandits crossed into Upper Canada, attacked a party of 14 lancers, and compelled their surrender, setting on fire an inn which sheltered them; the whole country rose, and on the advance of the British the invaders recrossed the frontier. At the end of June another band passed the St. Clair and

entered the Western district, but finding the people opposed, and the militia advancing, they fled. In November, when the insurrection occurred in the Lower province, 400 of the American brigands landed at Prescott, and were dispersed by colonel Young and captain Sandom, R.N., but some took refuge in a windmill, a strong stone house with walls three feet thick. Eighteen of the British were killed and wounded in attempting to carry the place, and it was not until cannon and additional troops arrived that the enemy, to the number of 159, surrendered at discretion. On the 4th of December between 300 and 400 of these marauders, having been organized at Detroit, crossed over into Canada near the town of Sandwich, burnt a steamer, and murdered several of the British subjects in cold blood. A party of militia arrived, and they retreated with the loss of 26 killed and 25 prisoners.

It now became evident that the government of the United States was totally unable to prevent its citizens making these cruel and cowardly attacks on the subjects of a state with whom it professed to be at peace; the Americans taken prisoners had heretofore been treated with mistaken lenity; but Sir George Arthur, in accordance with the wishes of the province, treated the marauders as a shepherd would treat wolves. Several of the Americans were tried by court-martial and hanged, and others were transported to Australia or imprisoned. The American government left them to their fate.

Thus ended a state of disturbance in Canada, which excited much anxiety in England, where all the proceedings were greatly magnified, and which has thrown back the province a full quarter of a century by the alarm created, and the consequent driving of capital and industry from the country. It should, however, be remembered, that the rebellion in East Canada was the work of a few individuals, and, probably, was not supported by ten thousand persons out of a population of half a million. The Roman Catholic bishop of Montreal issued and published an address to his flock, which had a powerful effect in preventing the spread of rebellion. Lieutenant-general Sir John Colborne, the commander-in-chief, thus describes the conduct of the Catholic clergy during this important period, in a despatch to the secretary of state, dated 8th June, 1839,—"There are few instances in the parishes which have been agitated in which

a want of loyalty has been shown by the priests; indeed, it cannot be denied that they have, with two or three exceptions, acted with great firmness, and have exerted their influence in favour of the government. The field officers of the militia, with few exceptions, are also loyal subjects, and, indeed, many of the officers of militia."

The leaders of the insurrection, in both Eastern and Western Canada, partook more of the character and doctrines of the "Red Republicans" and "Socialists," for which France has been unhappily distinguished in 1849, than those of men struggling for constitutional freedom. An association termed the "Sons of Liberty," paraded the streets of Montreal in a threatening manner, inciting the young and ignorant to join them; declaring that "a glorious destiny awaits the young men of these colonies; to disfranchise our beloved country from all human authority, except that of the bold democracy within its bosom." The ignorant country people had, for several years, been drugged with such doctrines; and hopes had been held out by some of the leaders, of the abolition of the feudal system.

It will be necessary to dwell at some length on the subsequent events in the history of Canada, and on the policy then pursued under the guidance of Lord John Russell as her majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies; because it involves the working of the principle of "*responsible government*," then, for the first time, effectually carried out in the administration of that colony, and which is now in the course of application to other dependencies of the British empire. The imperial government, on mature deliberation, adopted the recommendation contained in Lord Durham's report for a reunion of West and East Canada into one province, and in 1839 a bill was introduced into the House of Commons for the accomplishment of this object.

Mr. Pitt's views in dividing the provinces in 1791 had evidently failed; or the increase of a British population in Western Canada, and the state of affairs in Eastern Canada rendered it no longer advantageous, or even possible, to maintain the disunion. There was also a strong reason for the union, with regard to West Canada;—its annual revenue was largely pledged for the payment of public debts incurred for the improvement of the province by the construction of canals and other public works. Canals had been undertaken for the conveyance of produce,

which maintained a great extent of water communication uninterrupted; the *Welland* canal obviated the interruption caused by the falls of Niagara, and the *Cornwall* canal avoided the rapids in the river St. Lawrence, between Kingston in Western Canada and Montreal in Lower or Eastern Canada. To carry out its public works the colonial debt had, from year to year been increased; and in 1839 the charge for the annual interest of debt was £65,000; while the whole yearly revenue of Western Canada was only £78,000, which could not be increased by Customs duties, as the seaport of Quebec was in the East province. Western Canada was therefore on the eve of bankruptcy. On this and other points it was found that her majesty's government required full information, which could only be obtained on the spot from a man of unprejudiced views, practically acquainted with commerce and finance; and possessed of the confidence of her majesty's ministers. Their choice devolved on Mr. Charles Poulett Thomson, then President of the Board of Trade, who was offered either the Chancellorship of the Exchequer, or the government of Canada. Mr. Thomson decided on the latter, partly on account of his health, which he deemed unequal to the onerous duties of the former, and partly because he considered Canada the finest field of exertion, and likely to afford him great power of doing good to his fellow-creatures. The antecedents of Mr. Thomson's life had well fitted him for the high office he undertook to fill. Descended from one of the oldest and most respected merchants in the city of London, whose firm (Thomson, Bonar, and Co.) had for several generations been engaged in the Russian trade, Mr. Thomson had been early initiated into the habits of commercial life. At 16 years of age, his father, Mr. John Poulett Thomson, sent him to St. Petersburg, to commence business at the branch house there, then under the management of an elder brother, Mr. Andrew Thomson. In 1817, after two years' residence in the Russian capital, Mr. C. P. Thomson's health, at all times very delicate, obliged his return to England, and his wintering in Italy.

From 1817 to 1821 his time was passed partly at the counting-house in London, and partly in travelling on the continent; and from 1821 to 1824 in the counting-house at St. Petersburg, and in visiting Russia, Germany, &c. On the death of his father in May, 1824, Mr. C. P. Thomson returned to

England, joined the London firm as a partner, and entered into the active life of a London merchant. He became a director of several public companies, and was actively instrumental as such in the Provincial Bank of Ireland (founded in 1824 by Mr. Medley), where he acquired valuable information connected with banking and financial details. A great truth once sent forth on the wings of public opinion is sure sooner or later to operate for good, and the efforts of Mr. Thomson on the important subject of our revenue and fiscal system led the way and suggested the mode of remodelling entirely the prohibitive and protective system on which our commercial as well as financial code was then constructed.

On the death of Mr. Huskisson in 1830, Mr. Thomson was chosen by his party (the Whigs) to carry out the views of that great statesman; and for this high task he was well fitted, by previous study and practical experience—by great moral courage—remarkable industry—and a deep sense of responsibility. The retirement of the administration of the Duke of Wellington in 1830, and the formation of a cabinet by Earl Grey, led to Mr. Thomson's appointment as Vice-President of the Board of Trade and Treasurer of the Navy, and at the end of the same year Mr. Thomson finally withdrew from the commercial firm of Thomson, Bonar, and Co. It is not requisite to enter here into an examination of his career as Vice, and subsequently as President of the Board of Trade; suffice it to say, that in conjunction with the late lamented Lord Althorp, then chancellor of the exchequer, he carried out various useful acts.

In 1826, Mr. Thomson was returned to parliament as member for Dover, and judiciously remained silent for nearly two sessions, watching the progress of events. In 1828, he made a few pithy speeches, rightly judging, as he expressed it in a letter to his brother George, of 28th February, 1828, that "a man who tells the House facts with which the majority are unacquainted, is sure to be listened to." His speeches on the shipping interest, 7th May, 1827; on the usury laws, 20th May; on Scotch and Irish banking, 18th June; on reducing the duty on Indian silk goods to a minimum duty of 30 per cent., 16th July, 1828; and on the silk trade, 14th April, 1829, all told upon the house, and gained for Mr. Thomson that which is seldom acquired—a parliamentary commercial reputation. On the 25th March,

1830, Mr. Thomson delivered a remarkable speech on the general taxation of the empire, a speech replete with facts, then most difficult of attainment, and enunciating sound views of financial economy. Looking at our present comparatively simple fiscal system, it is difficult to conceive anything more absurd, more onerous, more injurious to trade or industry, than the revenue system of Great Britain in 1830; and much credit is due to Mr. Thomson for his exposure of many errors in the policy then pursued.*

In 1839, Mr. Thomson's health became much impaired by constant labour and mental anxiety acting on a naturally feeble constitution; added to which, his position as member for Manchester from 1832, must have increased considerably the duties of his public life. By patient toil and judicious conduct, without aristocratic connections, he had worked out for himself the high position of a cabinet minister, and on the elevation of Mr. Spring Rice to the peerage, the great object of his ambition, namely, the position of Chancellor of the Exchequer, was offered for his acceptance; fortunately for our colonies, he preferred the appointment of "Governor-General of British North America, and Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief in and over the Provinces of Lower Canada and Upper Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the island of Prince Edward, and Vice-Admiral of the same."

On 30th August, 1839, and on his fortieth birth-day, Mr. Thomson sailed in the *Pique* frigate from England, arrived at Quebec, received public addresses, and on 22nd October proceeded to Montreal. Great excitement and discontent prevailed in both provinces. The British and French Canadians in East Canada, who had taken no part in the recent rebellion, were naturally anxious for the restoration of constitutional government, the misled French Canadians who had been induced to join in the insane attempt at rebellion, were kept in constant agitation by their leaders; and in the Western province, which the new governor-general visited in November, he found the people in the state thus described by the lieutenant-governor, Sir George Arthur, in his despatch, dated the 22nd September, 1839. "All the wicked heads on both sides are constantly at work plotting mischief; and many

inconsiderate persons by the course they are now pursuing at the 'responsible government' meetings, promote the designs of the most criminal characters. The foundations of civil order were broken up by the occurrences of the year 1837, and general mistrust and bad feeling open out a way for the display of the worst passions of the worst men, of which they seem keenly disposed to avail themselves."

The position of the government was therefore very critical; the "family compact men" viewed Mr. Thomson with suspicion, and there was no settled party on whom he could rely for aid in his administration. His strong powers of perception speedily enabled the governor-general to appreciate the true state of the Canadas, both as regarded their internal government, and their position with respect to the United States. He concurred with Lord Durham in considering that the salvation of the provinces as dependencies of the British crown, and their future peace and prosperity, depended on their being reunited on the broad basis of justice to all. He also adopted Lord Durham's view of the necessity of making the Executive Council harmonise with the House of Assembly, by rendering the higher officers of the executive government dependent as in England on the majority in the House of Representatives, thus giving the people not only a general control over their own affairs, but affording them the means of declaring in whom they placed confidence for their administration. The course adopted by the governor-general was in unison with his manly character; he convened the Special Council of the Eastern province, which had been appointed by his predecessor on the suspension of the constitution; abstained from adding a single name to the council, in order to avoid imputations, and to give due weight to its decisions in England, and laid before them certain resolutions as the basis of union; namely, that a civil list should be granted by the crown, that the debt of Western Canada, should be borne by the united province; and that the details of the Union Bill should be settled by the imperial legislature. These resolutions were adopted by a majority of 12 to 3, after several days' discussion, in October, 1839, and the governor-general then proceeded to Toronto, in the Western province, and on the 3rd December, 1839, convened the Parliament which had been elected in 1836, under the administration of Sir F. B.

* See the "Taxation of the British Empire," by R. M. Martin.

Head. Previous to meeting his parliament, the governor-general deemed it expedient to promulgate the celebrated despatch of Lord John Russell, dated the 16th October, 1839, which declared that the tenure of certain high ministerial offices, such as colonial-secretary, treasurer, sergeant-general, attorney and solicitor-general, sheriff, or provost-marshal, and also the position of members of Council, should no longer be considered as a tenure for life, or during good behaviour, but that, "not only such officers will be called upon to retire from the public service, as often as any sufficient motives of public policy may suggest the expediency of that measure, but that a change in the person of the governor, will be considered as a sufficient reason for any alterations which his successor may deem it expedient to make in the list of public functionaries, subject of course to the future confirmation of the sovereign."

The adoption of this policy had become absolutely essential in both provinces, for the chief offices of the government and the seats in the Legislative Council were looked upon almost as hereditary rights, and such members of the executive government as were members of the Provincial Parliament, spoke and acted in their individual capacity without the slightest reference to the views or wishes of the governor, who was not unfrequently denounced for having friends in the gallery of the Houses of Parliament to acquaint him with the proceedings, and inform him of the speeches of the members. Such a state of things, it was evident, could not be tolerated, and rendered the authority of the governor a nullity, as the Assembly was split into half a dozen different parties, and he frequently had not one man to depend on as the representative of his policy. Several of the executive members had previously been opposed to the union; but on Mr. Thompson's promulgating the above-mentioned despatch of her majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies, Lord John Russell, they agreed to support the union, and *retain office*. The conditions proposed to the parliament of Upper Canada were (1) equality of representation for each province; (2) the grant of a civil list to be settled by the Imperial Parliament; and (3) equal division of the public debt. These were carried in the Legislative Council by a majority of 11 to 8, and of the minority all but two were inhabitants of Toronto, who were adverse to the union, because it would

deprive their city of being the seat of local government.

The House of Assembly did not so readily agree to the terms: they required that West Canada should be the seat of government; that the franchise should be restricted to those holding their lands in free and common socage (which would have disfranchised nearly the whole of the French Canadians who held their lands under feudal tenures); that West Canada should return 62 members, as at present, with a right of adding new members as population increased, but that East Canada should return no more than 50 members; and that the English language should alone be spoken and used in the legislature, in courts of justice, and in all public proceedings. The object was the annihilation of the French Canadian party by an arbitrary enactment; and as very few of the French Canadians understood English, the exclusion of their language from public proceedings would have been a great injustice. To these propositions the governor-general was decidedly opposed; his desire was to conciliate all parties, and he well knew that this most difficult object could only be attained by a firm adherence to the most strict principles of justice.

After many debates and adjournments the governor-general had the satisfaction of seeing his resolutions carried, with a slight alteration, by an almost unanimous vote; and on the 22nd of January, 1840, he transmitted to her majesty's government a draft bill for the act of union. While the measure was being discussed in the Imperial Parliament, the governor-general proceeded to redress several grievances, and settle some disputes of long standing. Among the most prominent was that concerning the land reserved for the clergy of the established church, which had been contested by the Scotch church, the Dissenters, and the Roman Catholics for 25 years, and it was desirable to bring the question to an issue before the union took place. The governor-general was opposed to the proposition generally entertained of converting the clergy reserved lands into a fund for general education, as religion would thus be deprived of the only existing means for the support of its ministers and the promulgation of its doctrines; he, therefore, brought forward and obtained the assent of his Parliament in the Assembly by a majority of 30 to 20, and in the Council of 14 to 5,

to a bill which distributed the clergy reserves among the religious communities recognised by law, in proportion to their respective numbers; and this bill was passed by the Imperial Legislature, in whom alone resided the power of making this distribution valid. The governor-general now proceeded to East Canada, summoned the Special Council, and by infusing his spirit into that body induced it to pass, in a few weeks, several useful laws. Among the measures proposed to be established by the ordinances of the Special Council, were the incorporation of the cities of Quebec and Montreal (the former corporations having been allowed to expire during the dissensions of 1836); the incorporation of the seminary of St. Sulpice in order to provide for the gradual extinction of the seigniorial dues in the city and island of Montreal, which had been granted in 1663 for the conversion of the Indians, and the ecclesiastical superintendence of the island of Montreal.

The establishment of municipal institutions and of land registration offices for readily ascertaining mortgages, were urgently pressed by the governor-general as measures of vital importance. The state of things in East Canada at this time, is described by Mr. Thomson in a private letter as follows:—"No man looks to a practical measure of improvement. Talk to any one upon education, or public works, or better laws, you might as well talk Greek to him. Not a man cares for a single practical measure, the only end, one would suppose, of a better form of government. They have only one feeling—a hatred of race. The French hate the English, and the English hate the French, and every question resolves itself into that, and that alone. There is, positively, no machinery of government; everything is to be done by the governor and his secretary. There are no heads of departments at all, or none whom one can depend on. The wise system heretofore adopted has been to stick two men into some office whenever a vacancy occurred—one a Frenchman, and the other a Britisher! Thus we have joint crown surveyors, joint sheriffs, &c., each opposing the other in everything he attempts." To eradicate, as far as possible, this estrangement was the great aim of Mr. Thomson, as it has since been that of his successors, Lords Metcalfe and Elgin.

The measures of the governor-general had given entire satisfaction to her majesty's

government, as they had done generally throughout Canada; and the Queen was pleased to raise him to the peerage, by the title of Baron Sydenham in Kent, and Toronto in Canada; an honour which it was rightly deemed advisable to announce with the declaration of the union of the two provinces, made by Lord Sydenham at Montreal, on the 10th of February, 1841, the anniversary of the marriage of our gracious sovereign, and of the conclusion of the treaty of 1763, by which Canada was ceded to the British crown. The provisions of the Act will be found in the section on Government. The following is a copy of the celebrated despatch of Lord John Russell to the governor-general on "Responsible Government," which has been so much canvassed, and which forms the basis of constitutional and colonial government:—

"Downing Street, 14th Oct. 1839

"Sir,

"It appears from Sir George Arthur's despatches that you may encounter much difficulty in subduing the excitement which prevails on the question of what is called 'Responsible Government.' I have to instruct you, however, to refuse any explanation which may be construed to imply an acquiescence in the petitions and addresses upon this subject. I cannot better commence this despatch than by a reference to the resolutions of both houses of Parliament, of the 28th April and 9th May, in the year 1837.

"The Assembly of Lower Canada having repeatedly pressed this point, her majesty's confidential advisers at that period thought it necessary not only to explain their views in the communications of the Secretary of State, but expressly called for the opinion of Parliament on the subject. The Crown and the two houses of Lords and Commons having thus decisively pronounced a judgment upon the question, you will consider yourself precluded from entertaining any proposition on the subject.

"It does not appear, indeed, that any very definite meaning is generally agreed upon by those who call themselves the advocates of this principle; but its very vagueness is a source of delusion, and if at all encouraged, would prove the cause of embarrassment and danger.

"The constitution of England, after long struggles and alternate success, has settled into a form of government in which the prerogative of the Crown is undisputed, but is never exercised without advice. Hence the exercise only is questioned, and however the use of the authority may be condemned, the authority itself remains untouched.

"This is the practical solution of a great problem, the result of a contest which from 1640 to 1689 shook the monarchy, and disturbed the peace of the country.

"But if we seek to apply such a practice to a colony, we shall at once find ourselves at fault. The power for which a minister is responsible in England is not his own power, but the power of the Crown, of which he is for the time the organ. It is obvious that the executive councillor of a colony is in a situ-

ation totally different. The Governor under whom he serves, receives his orders from the Crown of England. But can the colonial council be the advisers of the Crown of England? Evidently not, for the Crown has other advisers, for the same functions, and with superior authority.

"It may happen, therefore, that the Governor receives at one and the same time instructions from the Queen, and advice from his executive council, totally at variance with each other. If he is to obey his instructions from England, the parallel of constitutional responsibility entirely fails; if, on the other hand, he is to follow the advice of his council, he is no longer a subordinate officer, but an independent sovereign.

"There are some cases in which the force of these objections is so manifest, that those who at first made no distinction between the constitution of the United Kingdom, and that of the colonies admit their strength. I allude to the questions of foreign war, and international relations, whether of trade or diplomacy. It is now said that internal government is alone intended.

But there are some cases of internal government, in which the honour of the Crown or the faith of Parliament, or the safety of the state, are so seriously involved, that it would not be possible for Her Majesty to delegate her authority to a ministry in a colony.

"I will put for illustration some of the cases which have occurred in that very province where the petition for a responsible executive first arose—I mean Lower Canada.

"During the time when a large majority of the assembly of Lower Canada, followed M. Papineau as their leader, it was obviously the aim of that gentleman to discourage all who did their duty to the Crown within the province, and to deter all who should resort to Canada with British habits and feelings from without. I need not say that it would have been impossible for any minister to support, in the Parliament of the United Kingdom, the measures which a ministry, headed by M. Papineau, would have imposed upon the Governor of Lower Canada; British officers punished for doing their duty; British emigrants defrauded of their property; British merchants discouraged in their lawful pursuits,—would have loudly appealed to Parliament against the Canadian ministry, and would have demanded protection.

"Let us suppose the Assembly as then constituted, to have been sitting when Sir John Colborne suspended two of the judges. Would any councillor, possessing the confidence of the Assembly, have made himself responsible for the act? And yet the very safety of the province depended on its adoption. Nay, the very orders of which your Excellency is yourself the bearer, respecting Messrs. Bedard and Panet, would never be adopted, or put in execution by a ministry depending for existence on a majority led by M. Papineau.

"Nor can any one take upon himself to say that such cases will not again occur. The principle once sanctioned, no one can say how soon its application might be dangerous, or even dishonourable, while all will agree that to recall the power thus conceded would be impossible.

"While I thus see insuperable objections to the adoption of the principle as it has been stated, I see little or none to the practical views of colonial government recommended by Lord Durham, as I understand

them. The Queen's Government have no desire to thwart the representative assemblies of British North America in their measures of reform and improvement. They have no wish to make these provinces the resource for patronage at home. They are earnestly intent on giving to the talent and character of leading persons in the colonies, advantages similar to those which talent and character, employed in the public service, obtain, in the United Kingdom. Her Majesty has no desire to maintain any system of policy among her North American subjects, which opinion condemns. In receiving the Queen's commands, therefore, to protest against any declaration at variance with the honour of the Crown, and the unity of the empire, I am at the same time instructed to announce Her Majesty's gracious intention to look to the affectionate attachment of her people in North America, as the best security for permanent dominion.

"It is necessary for this purpose that no official misconduct should be screened by Her Majesty's representative in the provinces; and that no private interests should be allowed to compete with the general good.

"Your Excellency is fully in possession of the principles which have guided Her Majesty's advisers on this subject; and you must be aware that there is no surer way of earning the approbation of the Queen, than by maintaining the harmony of the executive with the legislative authorities.

"While I have thus cautioned you against any declaration from which dangerous consequences might hereafter flow, and instructed you as to the general line of your conduct, it may be said that I have not drawn any specific line beyond which the power of the Governor on the one hand, and the privileges of the Assembly on the other, ought not to extend. But this must be the case in any mixed government. Every political constitution in which different bodies share the supreme power, is only enabled to exist by the forbearance of those among whom this power is distributed. In this respect the example of England may well be imitated. The sovereign using the prerogative of the Crown to the utmost extent, and the House of Commons exerting its power of the purse, to carry all its resolutions into immediate effect, would produce confusion in the country in less than a twelvemonth. So in a colony: the Governor thwarting every legitimate proposition of the Assembly; and the Assembly continually recurring to its power of refusing supplies, can but disturb all political relations, embarrass trade, and retard the prosperity of the people. Each must exercise a wise moderation. The Governor must only oppose the wishes of the Assembly where the honour of the Crown, or the interests of the empire are deeply concerned; and the Assembly must be ready to modify some of its measures for the sake of harmony, and from a reverent attachment to the authority of Great Britain.

"I have, &c.,

J. RUSSELL."

Lord Sydenham, when announcing the union, issued a spirited proclamation, and appealed to the good feelings and interests of the Canadians to render the union productive of the advantages which it was the desire of the queen and of her majesty's government it should confer.

The governor-general summoned the

united legislature to meet him at Kingston on 13th June, 1841; violent party strife or rather contests of race took place at the elections in which the governor-general abstained from interfering, except to maintain order and to protect the free exercise of the franchise. The composition of the House of Assembly when it met was said to be: government members 24, French members 20, moderate reformers, 20, ultra reformers 5, "family compact" 7, doubtful 6, special return 1, double ditto 1; total 84. The governor-general opened the session in a speech of much moderation, advised conciliation, announced that Great Britain had agreed to pledge its credit for a loan of £1,500,000 to complete the public works, that assistance would be afforded by the home government to convey destitute emigrants from the port of embarkation to the place where their labour might be required; declared, in reference to McLeod and the United States, "her majesty's fixed determination to protect, with the whole might of her power all her Canadian subjects; pointed out the necessity of establishing throughout the province a system of self-government such as had already been established in East Canada; the establishment of a comprehensive and efficient system of education, and concluded with a prayer that, "under the blessing of that Providence which had hitherto preserved this portion of the British dominions, their counsels might be guided so as to insure to the queen attached and loyal subjects, and to United Canada a prosperous and contented people."

Notwithstanding these conciliatory measures and proceedings, an attempt was made by Mr. Neilson, the representative of Quebec, by an amendment on the speech from the throne, to condemn the Act of Union as "inconsistent with justice and the common rights of British subjects." Mr. Neilson's amendment was rejected by 50 to 25, 18 of the minority were French Canadians, or represented French constituencies, 6 were of the extreme Upper Canada party, and 1 was member for Gaspé. Another similar amendment was rejected by 54 to 21. The Assembly then proceeded to discuss a bill brought in by Sir Allan McNab to extend the time for receiving petitions on contested elections, in consequence of some defeated candidates having been too late in presenting their petitions in the only form in which they could be received by the Assembly. The measure was a party move, and was termed the "French

Election Bill." Owing to misconception and other reasons the government were unable to defeat the bill, which passed the House of Assembly, and was sent up to the Legislative Council for discussion and confirmation. The upper house rejected the bill, and the harmonious working of two legislative chambers was established; the upper judiciously acting as a check on hasty or party legislation in the lower chamber.

The United Parliament of Canada now proceeded to work; the governor-general introduced through his executive officers various bills for revising the custom laws; readjusting the currency; educating the people; creating an efficient "Board of Works" for the whole province, which would take the power of jobbing out of the hands of local parties and private individuals; a municipal district bill, &c.; and the first session closed triumphantly for the governor-general, and happily for Canada, in peace and reviving prosperity. But Lord Sydenham's constitution, never very strong, gave way after two years of incessant labour; he was unable to close Parliament in person, which was done by general Clitherow on 17th Sept., 1841, and on the 19th of the same month, Canada lost one of the most able men who ever administered its affairs—the crown a valuable servant, and the nation a true patriot—whose devotion to the interests of his country was manifested up to the moment of his death.

The immediate cause of the decease of Lord Sydenham was owing to his horse falling with him, on 4th September, fracturing his leg, and causing a severe wound above the knee. His lordship finding his health fast failing, had, in July, 1841, sent home his resignation, which had been graciously accepted by the queen, who had conferred on him the order of the Bath, and while waiting the closing of Parliament and the arrival of the *Pique* frigate from Halifax to convey him to England, the accident occurred which suddenly terminated the labours of his useful life at the age of forty-two.

By men of all parties in Canada, the death of Lord Sydenham was viewed as a public calamity, and the press throughout the province bore testimony to the great value of his services. In the words of his able biographer, who rendered efficient assistance to the governor-general in his arduous duties:—"When we look back at the effects produced by his short but vigorous adminis-

tration, we need not be surprised at the unanimity which prevailed on this occasion. He had found the provinces staggering under the effects of two rebellions; their inhabitants divided against each other; their improvements arrested; their exchequers empty; their credit annihilated; each man mistrusting his neighbour; and all looking to military force as the only security against renewed violence and ultimate separation from the mother-country. In less than two years the picture was reversed. He left the province not only in the most complete security and repose; safe not only against foreign aggression, but against intestine discord; hope and confidence revived in every bosom; the public works again in progress; credit re-established; and the union with the mother-country cemented and placed on a broader and more secure basis.*

On the death of Lord Sydenham, Sir C. Bagot was appointed governor-general of Canada. He had been long employed in the diplomatic service, and having the character of being a high churchman and decided Tory, his accession to office was very favourably viewed by Canada; but they, nevertheless, complained that he threw himself into the hands of the Whigs and Radicals. Messrs. Draper and Ogden, Tory leaders, resigned; Messrs. Baldwin and Lafontaine, heads of the opposite party, were appointed attorneys-general for West and East Canada; and the council of eleven members was composed of moderate men of all shades of politics. It is, however, acknowledged, even by their opponents, that the new government and governor-general "adopted a system of managing the public revenues, calculated to cherish and improve the resources of the country; that its income increased under their direction; a more beneficial surveillance than had hitherto existed was imposed on the different public officers; and that the official duties of the departments were ably executed."—[*Colonial Magazine*, No. 33, September, 1846.] Severe illness obliged Sir Charles Bagot to resign office at the end of 1842, and he died in Canada on the 19th of May, 1843.

On the resignation of Sir Charles Bagot,

* T. C. Murdoch, Esq. then attached to Lord Sydenham as Civil Secretary, and now head of the Colonial Emigration Commission. Mr. Murdoch wrote that portion of the life of Lord Sydenham which related to Canada; the remainder was well executed by the brother of the deceased nobleman, G. Pomett Scrope, esq. M.P.

the premier, Sir Robert Peel, sought among the ablest men of the day for his successor, and Sir C. Metcalfe, though without aristocratic connections, and even personally unknown to any member of her majesty's ministers, was appointed governor-general of Canada.

Sir C. Metcalfe, born the 30th of January, 1785, was the second son of Sir Theophilus Metcalfe, M.P., whose family had been long connected with the East India Company. Mr. Metcalfe was educated at Eton, where he was "noted for his great kindness of disposition, and his remarkable aptitude at acquiring knowledge and mastering difficulties." In 1800 he proceeded to Bengal as a "writer," or civilian, in the service of the East India Company. His proficiency in the college of Fort William attracted the notice of the Marquess Wellesley, then governor-general of India, who, in order to train a class of civil servants adapted for the government of a great empire, formed what was termed the "Governor-General's Office," in which were placed the most promising young men in the service of the East India Company, where, under the eye of Lord Wellesley, they were trained and prepared for high positions.

In a letter written to the Marquess Wellesley in 1836, Sir Charles Metcalfe, gratefully attributes his success in life to the counsels of Lord Wellesley, and to his own endeavours to follow the example set by his lordship. Mr. Metcalfe first distinguished himself as resident at the court of Scindiah, one of the Mahratta chieftains, and at a critical period, when his very life was threatened, evinced the firmness which characterized his after life. During the Mahratta war of 1803 to 1805, Mr. Metcalfe was attached in a civil capacity to the army of Lord Lake, and his lordship having, in a moment of irritation, let fall some hasty expressions respecting "men who would not fight, and were in the way of others," the young civilian vindicated his personal courage by taking an active part in several contests, and particularly at the battle and siege of Deeg, where, carried away by enthusiasm, and armed only with a walking-stick, he headed an attacking party of the British troops in their assault on the city. In successive years Mr. Metcalfe passed through different grades of office, and was employed as resident, or representative of the British government at the courts of Scindiah, of the Great Mogul at Delhi, the

Nizam of the Deccan, and at Lahore, on a special mission to Runjeet Sing. He also filled the arduous office of chief secretary to government, and in 1827 became a member of the Supreme Council of Bengal, and retained his seat for seven years, two years beyond the usual period. In 1831 Sir Charles Metcalfe (who had succeeded to a baronetcy on the death of his father) was appointed lieutenant-governor of the Agra and the North-west provinces of India; and in the same year, on the retirement of Lord William Bentinck, he was named acting governor-general, the highest office which a civil servant of the East India Company can hold in Bengal; the crown having adopted the suggestion of Lord Wellesley, that the office of governor-general should not be held by any servant of the East India Company. As acting governor-general, Sir Charles Metcalfe granted a free press to British India, and adopted various liberal measures. In 1836 he was succeeded by Lord Auckland, who was appointed governor-general; and the court of directors of the East India Company having disapproved of Sir Charles Metcalfe's ordinance on the Indian press, he returned to England, and thus ended a useful career of 36 years' service in British India. In 1837 he was created a civil K.C.B. by His Majesty William IV., and retired, for a time, into private life. In July, 1839, Sir Charles Metcalfe was induced to quit his privacy, and undertake the office of captain-general or governor of Jamaica, which was strongly urged upon him, in consequence of the distracted state of affairs in that important colony. On his arrival at Jamaica the governor called the Assembly together, frankly solicited their confidence, which was readily granted; and by a strict enforcement of justice, tempered with mercy—by firmness attended with mildness—he succeeded in restoring peace to the colony. General ill health, and the appearance of a cancer on his face, compelled Sir Charles Metcalfe, to the great regret of all parties, to relinquish the government of Jamaica on the 20th of May, 1842; and on his arrival in July of the same year Sir Charles Brodie excised a cancerous tumour from his cheek, after which he partially recovered—accepted the station of governor-general of Canada, and proceeded immediately to Kingston, in Western Canada, where he was sworn into office.

The new governor-general stated that

while he recognized the just power and privileges of the people to influence their rulers, and to regulate, through their representatives, the measures of the government, he reserved to himself the right of selecting the executive officers of the crown. The members of the Canadian Parliament, and also of the executive, were divided on the subject of the transfer of the seat of government from Kingston, in Upper Canada, to Montreal in Lower Canada; and there was a great struggle for a parliamentary majority by Sir Allan Napier McNab and his party. Sir C. Metcalfe did not interfere in these discussions, and the Assembly eventually decided for the removal. In 1844 the queen, as a mark of her appreciation of the long and valuable services of this distinguished servant, created him Baron Metcalfe.

It is unnecessary to enter into details here, on subjects of merely local interest, which influenced the majorities in the Assembly and the persons entrusted with the executive government of the colony. No particular event took place, except two awfully destructive fires which occurred at Quebec. Happily few lives were lost; but it was calculated that the dwellings of 24,000 people had been destroyed, many of whose inhabitants were reduced to utter destitution. Subscriptions to the amount of £100,000 were collected in the United Kingdom, and £35,000 was elsewhere raised for the relief of the afflicted sufferers.

In 1844 the Canadian Parliament was dissolved, and a new one called, in which the views of the governor-general were supported by a small majority. The high character, indomitable energy, and singleness of purpose habitually evinced by the representative of the crown in Canada, enabled him to effect much good in training the people for the future enjoyment of free institutions; and had his life and powers been spared, he would doubtless have assuaged the asperity which the violence of party feeling had diffused over all classes in Canada. But in November, 1845, he was obliged to return to England, the cancer on his cheek having reappeared; and of this dreadful disease he soon after died, universally regretted. The kindness, the frank manliness, forbearance, and christian charity of Lord Metcalfe were as fully appreciated in Canada as they had been in Jamaica and in British India.

Lord Stanley in the Canadian debate in the House of Lords on 13th June, 1849, described him as "that wise, great, and good

man, of whose high qualities and transcendent merits it would be impossible to speak in terms of exaggerated praise." His lordship drew an eloquent, but most truthful picture, when he said—"He knew nothing more touching than the uniform patience and fortitude with which, in the agony of an incurable disease, in the presence of death in its most loathsome and appalling form, in the midst of the most violent party struggles, surrounded by the most distracting vexations, and the extremest agony of body and mind—nothing could be more touching than the self-possession, the calmness, and temper with which he restrained the violence which assailed the governor of Canada."

The then commander-in-chief in British North America, Lieutenant-general Earl Cathcart, was appointed administrator of the government. At this period the Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, then governor of Jamaica, was in England on leave of absence. Lord Elgin had succeeded Sir Charles Metcalfe in May, 1842, in the administration of the affairs of Jamaica, and his conduct had given universal satisfaction in the colony, to his sovereign, and to her majesty's government. His lordship had inherited and imbibed from his father a capacity for public life. The late Earl of Elgin had been chiefly employed in the diplomatic service, and during the eventful period at the close of the last, and the beginning of the present century, his exertions as his majesty's representative with the Sublime Porte, at Constantinople, were effectively instrumental in aiding the late Marquis Wellesley in the successful issue of his lordship's project for the expulsion of the French from Egypt by the combined armies from England and from India. Lord Elgin was, contrary to the law of nations, imprisoned by Napoleon for his exertions; which were never requited by the government of Britain. The sacrifice of the Athenian Marbles to the French emperor would have secured his freedom, but his lordship's patriotic spirit destined them for his own country, and would not abandon his object even for personal freedom or riches. The grant from the British parliament only repaid half his expenses in conveying them from the shores of Greece, to be cared for and appreciated in Britain; but his desire of raising the standard of taste among his countrymen was accomplished. The present peer was born in 1811, educated at Oxford, returned member for Southampton to the

Imperial Parliament, where he made an effective speech on the Address, which at once marked him as a statesman, and opened the door of office to him while in England. His accession to the earldom removed him from the House of Commons, and her majesty's government being anxious to nominate a successor to Sir Charles Metcalfe in the government of Jamaica, Lord Elgin accepted the appointment, which he fulfilled greatly to the satisfaction of his sovereign, and to the Whig as well as Conservative party. Earl Grey subsequently stated in the House of Lords, that Lord Elgin was nearly a stranger to him when he recommended his lordship to the queen for the government of Canada; and during the recent parliamentary discussions statesmen of all parties in both houses united in bearing testimony to the ability and integrity of the governor-general, the difficulties of whose position are, perhaps, even greater than those of his predecessors. Lord Lyndhurst, in the debate of 20th of June, 1848, while opposing the "Canada Indemnity Bill," said, "*I believe—and I state it on the testimony of many persons who have the best means of knowledge—Lord Elgin to be a most honest and conscientious as well as able man.*" The Earl of Elgin was appointed Governor-General of Canada 1st of October, 1846, and arrived in Canada in January, 1847.

The principal feature in the administration of the Earl of Elgin has been the passing of a bill by the legislature of Canada for the indemnification of parties in the Lower province, who had suffered by the rebellion of 1837-38. The bill has occasioned considerable excitement in Canada, and given rise to much discussion in the Imperial Parliament, and as the question raised in England, both in the House of Commons and the House of Lords, involves the free exercise of what is termed "responsible," or, more properly speaking, "constitutional" government in the colonies, it will be desirable to place on record a brief narrative of the principal circumstances connected with this measure, derived from the documents laid before Parliament.

On the 26th January, 1838, Earl Gosford, then governor-general, addressed a letter from Quebec to Lord Glenelg, then her majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies, in which he informed her majesty's government that "many loyal individuals in Lower Canada had sustained losses to a greater or less extent, from the rebels having taken

possession of and laid waste their property, or from the same having been destroyed by the military operations necessary for putting down the insurrection;" and the governor-general inquired "whether any and what description of losses incurred from the above causes were to be indemnified, and in what manner." A committee of the Executive Council of Lower Canada, of Messrs. Stewart, Pemberton, Panet, and Guesnal, on 21st January, 1838, having deliberated on the subject, recommended "an advance, by way of loan, to any loyal subject who can show satisfactorily that the whole or greater part of his property has been destroyed, without any connivance or fault of the applicant, by the rebels or her majesty's forces, during the late insurrection, a sum not exceeding one-third of the estimated loss; the party giving good security for the repayment of the amount so advanced, without interest, in case of the government hereafter deciding that such losses are not to be indemnified by the public."

On the 26th April, 1838, an ordinance (1 Vic. c. 7) was passed by the Special Council of Lower Canada, under the administration of lieutenant-general Sir John Colborne, authorizing the appointment of commissioners "to investigate the claims of certain loyal inhabitants of the province for losses sustained during the late unnatural rebellion."

On the 6th March, 1838, an act (1 Vic. c. 13) was passed by the legislature of Upper Canada, authorizing the appointment of commissioners to make a diligent and impartial inquiry into the amount of losses sustained by "*certain inhabitants* of this province" during the late unnatural rebellion." The word "*loyal*" does not appear in this act. The commissioners were to inquire into all matters and things under oath, to punish false swearing, and to furnish to the lieutenant-general accounts of their proceedings in writing. The report of the commissioners in Upper Canada gives full details of the property destroyed by the *rebels* in Upper Canada, and also that destroyed by the American "sympathisers," or invaders.

On 11th May, 1838, the legislature of Upper Canada passed an act (c. 68), authorizing the issue of provincial debentures to the amount of about £5,000, bearing 6 per cent. interest, and redeemable after 20 years, to certain persons whose claims for losses during the insurrection in Upper Canada in December, 1837, had been investigated.

The House of Assembly also addressed the queen, praying the reimbursement of the money thus granted from the imperial treasury. The Marquis of Normanby, as her majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies, on 27th June, 1839, informed Sir G. Arthur, lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada, that he was commanded by the queen to express to the Assembly her majesty's regret that she could not hold out any prospect of the indemnity-money being repaid by Parliament, the people of England being already charged with the military defence of the province.

In 1839, an act was passed by the legislature of Upper Canada to "ascertain and provide for the payment of *all just claims arising from the late rebellion* and invasion of the province." The preamble of this Act conveyed a pledge that the indemnity should ultimately be borne by the Imperial treasury.

Lord John Russell, as her majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies, on 12th October, 1839, declined giving the assent of the crown, stating, that even if the principle of the preamble were admitted, it would be of no avail, unless with the previous sanction of Parliament. His lordship, however, informed Sir George Arthur, the lieutenant-governor, that if the colonial legislature should pass a similar bill, free from the objection of pledging Parliament for the payment of the indemnity-money, he would be ready to advise the giving of the royal assent.

In 1840 an act was passed by the United Legislature of Canada (8 Vic. c. 72), appropriating £40,000 "for the payment of all *just claims* arising from the late rebellion and invasion of the province." The money to be collected and levied from tavern licences and other duties in the province, and apportioned by three commissioners on oath. The royal assent was given to this act, and it was promulgated 22nd October, 1840. A further act was passed 28th July, 1847, adding £3,613 8s. 9d. to the £40,000 authorized by the 8 Vic. c. 72. Nothing was stated in the act relative to loyalty; the matters to be investigated involved solely the *justness*, or as Mr. Poulett Thomson expressed it, the *validity* of the claims.

Under this act it is stated by Mr. Hincks, the receiver-general of Canada, that many persons who were known to be rebels received payment for supplies rendered to the military, or for damage sustained.

During 1838, and in subsequent years,

the losses sustained in *Lower* Canada by the rebels and American invaders, was repeatedly under examination and discussion. Previous to the arrival of Mr. P. Thomson as governor-general, £21,000 had been awarded to the sufferers by Sir J. Colborne, and Mr. Thomson urged on her majesty's government that the Imperial Parliament should defray, at least, some of these claims.

In 1845 the council of Lord Metcalfe (then consisting of what is termed the conservative party in Canada) proposed that a special fund, derived from tavern and marriage licenses, which formed part of the revenue of the consolidated fund in Canada, and was more productive in Upper than Lower Canada, should be surrendered to the municipalities; and that in Upper Canada it should, in the first place, be charged with the payment of the rebellion indemnity losses. *Previous* to this proposal being carried in the Canadian Parliament, a resolution was unanimously adopted by the House of Assembly, praying his excellency "to cause proper measures to be adopted, in order to ensure to the inhabitants of *Lower* Canada indemnity for *just* losses by them sustained during the rebellion of 1837 and 1838."

The French party in the United Legislature assented to this act for indemnification in Upper Canada: a proposition was made, and confirmed by the above resolution, that a similar act should be passed for *Lower* Canada. On the 24th of November, 1845, Lord Metcalfe, the governor-general, issued a commission to Messrs. Dione, Moore, Jacques, Viger, Simpson, and Beaudry, to inquire into the losses sustained by her majesty's *loyal* subjects in *Lower* Canada. On the retirement of Lord Metcalfe the commission was renewed on the 12th of December, 1845, by the Earl of Cathcart, as administrator of the province, to the same persons; and the commissioners were instructed to "*classify carefully the cases of those who may have joined in the said rebellion, or who may have been aiding and abetting therein, from the cases of those who did not; stating particularly, but succinctly, the nature of the loss sustained in each case, its amount and character, and, as far as possible, its cause.*"

An investigation of this nature would, if efficiently performed, necessarily enable the government to ascertain what were "*just*" claims, without entering on the debateable ground of what constituted treason, or who

were traitors or rebels; but a difficulty arose in the minds of the commissioners as to their powers and means of procuring evidence, and on the 27th of February the government decided that the commissioners were to be "guided by the sentences of the courts of law," and that they had no powers to call for persons or papers.

On the 18th of April, 1846, the commissioners reported to Lord Cathcart, that they recognized claims to the number of 2,176, and of the value of £241,965, viz., personal property £111,127, real property £68,961, and damages not comprised in the foregoing heads £61,877. In the latter was included £9,000 for interest, £2,000 for quartering troops, £30,000 indemnity for imprisonment, interruption of business or trade, privation of goods destroyed or carried off, and banishment: the remainder represented various losses, such as account books, trade effects, &c. The commissioners were of opinion that £100,000 would be a sufficient and fair equivalent to the losses sustained; and they stated, that "the want of power to proceed to a strict and regular investigation of the losses in question, left them no other resource than to trust to the allegations of the claimants as to the amount and nature of their losses." Some of the claims the commissioners considered inadmissible, and others were evidently exorbitant.

On the 19th of June, 1846, the United Legislature passed "an act to provide for the payment of certain rebellion losses in *Lower* Canada." The act also empowered the issuing of £9,986 7s. 2d. in debentures towards the payment of the said indemnity.

On Lord Elgin's assumption of the government of Canada in January, 1847, he found the question in the state described. The Conservative administration by which he was surrounded, dissolved the House of Assembly in the hope of strengthening their position; but the new Assembly convened under their auspices, placed the administration in a minority, and compelled it to give place to what would be termed in England the Whig or Reform Party. By the constitution of Canada the governor-general is bound to act only through "responsible" advisers—that is, those who possess the confidence of the province; and the only legitimate proof of that confidence is a majority in the House of Assembly.

The Reform administration proceeded to carry out the measures adopted by their

predecessors in office for the indemnification of the rebellion losses; and, accordingly, on the 27th of February, 1849, an act was introduced, and read without opposition in the House of Assembly, "to provide for the indemnification of parties in Lower Canada, whose property was destroyed during the rebellion of 1837-38." The preamble recited the different steps that had been taken during preceding years, and authorised the issue of debentures to the amount of £100,000, for the payment of this indemnity. But as the commissioners of 1846 reported their inability to make a strict and regular investigation of the losses in question, the preamble declared—"it is necessary and just that the particulars of such losses, not yet paid and satisfied, should form the subject of more *minute inquiry under legislative authority*, and that the same, so far only as they may have arisen from the total or partial, unjust, unnecessary, or wanton destruction of the dwellings, buildings, property, and effects of the said inhabitants, and from the seizure, taking or carrying away of their property and effects, should be paid and satisfied; provided that *none* of the persons who have been *convicted of high treason*, alleged to have been committed in that part of this province formerly the province of Lower Canada, since the first day of November, 1837, or who, having been *charged with high treason or other offences* of a treasonable nature, and having been *committed to the custody of the sheriff in the gaol of Montreal, submitted themselves to the will and pleasure of her majesty*, and were thereupon *transported* to her majesty's Islands of Bermuda, shall be entitled to any indemnity for losses sustained during or after the said rebellion, or in consequence thereof."

This act, after much discussion, was passed by the House of Assembly and by the Legislative Council. It was opposed on the ground, that rebels *might* obtain compensation, which the administration repeatedly asserted was not the intention of the act; and no objection having been made by her majesty's government to the previous act for Upper Canada, or to any of the proceedings adopted by Lords Gosford, Sydenham, Metcalfe, and Cathcart, the governor-general deemed it his duty to give his assent. It was well known that much property had been wantonly destroyed in the Lower province, and a pledge had been given by the members of Upper Canada to

those of Lower Canada, previous to the passing of the indemnity bill for Upper Canada, that a similar act should be adopted for Lower Canada. The money was not to come out of the Imperial treasury, but to be raised by the people, whose representatives had, by a considerable majority (48 to 32) enacted the law, which was confirmed by the Legislative Council, consisting of 31 English and 15 French members nominated for life, and independent of the governor or of the people; and it was clearly the bounden duty of the representative of the crown in Canada to do that which his sovereign would necessarily have done in England, namely, assent to a measure passed by majorities in the House of Commons and in the House of Lords. Had Lord Elgin declined to take this course, he would have thrown the whole colony into irremediable confusion; the disastrous contest of races would have broken out afresh; the constitution granted by the Queen and Parliament of Great Britain would have been treated as a nullity; the declaration of our gracious sovereign, that it was the "anxious desire of her majesty that her British North American subjects should enjoy that freedom which is the birth-right of Britons," would have been set aside; and every other colony to which Great Britain might hereafter grant constitutional government, might justly doubt the permanence of a constitution whose first principles were liable to be abrogated or altered according to the fluctuating state of party feeling, either in the colony or at home.

To have dissolved the Canadian Parliament on the subject would have been unjust: when that parliament was convened the question was before the colony, and its principle ratified by the Upper Canada act; and to have reserved the act for the assent of the queen, would have thrown on the crown a degree of responsibility which its representative felt himself bound to incur. The governor-general, therefore, wisely, and in a spirit of justice, and also of conciliation, to all classes, gave his assent; but in consequence of the street riots in Montreal, promoted by the opponents of the act, and the disgraceful proceedings of the mob in burning the House of Parliament at Montreal, and thus destroying its magnificent library, Lord Elgin patriotically tendered his resignation of the arduous and responsible office, which he filled with dignified neutrality between violent contending par-

ties, and which, from the commencement of his administration, his lordship declared it had been his unremitting study to maintain. The queen and her majesty's government immediately expressed full approval of the whole conduct of the governor-general; urgently desired his retention of the office he had so meritoriously and judiciously filled; and the House of Commons and the House of Lords ratified the decision of her majesty's ministers. The approbation of the queen was thus strongly expressed by the Secretary of State for the Colonies, in the concluding paragraph of a despatch dated 18th of May, 1849:—"Relying, therefore, upon your devotion to the interests of Canada, I feel assured that you will not be induced by the unfortunate occurrences which have taken place, to retire from the high office which the queen has been pleased to entrust to you, and which, from the value she puts upon your past services, it is her majesty's anxious wish that you should retain." Sir Robert Peel most ably supported the policy pursued by Lord John Russell and Earl Grey. The House of Assembly in Canada voted an address to the

governor-general by a considerable majority, which was tantamount to an approval of his policy; and about 300 addresses were presented to him from Montreal, Quebec, and various places in Upper and Lower Canada.

The violent language and proceedings of the minority have inflicted much injury on Canada; and the inflammatory articles printed in the *Montreal Gazette* of 25th April, 1849, and laid before the British Parliament in May, 1849, cannot be palliated.

Canada wants capital to cultivate its waste lands, to make railroads and canals, and to improve its valuable territory. Capital can only be attracted by peace, by order, by an union of all classes cordially combining for the welfare of their common country. May this recent agitation be the expiring contest of the opposing races in Canada; the colonists, whether of English or French descent, are now *all British subjects*, and have been so for nearly a century (90 years)—the queen and government of Great Britain acknowledge no distinction, and it is the interest, as it is the policy, of England that Canada should be peaceful, prosperous, united, and happy.

CHAPTER II.

TOPOGRAPHY, RIVERS, LAKES, TOWNSHIPS, CHIEF CITIES, ETC.

CANADA, under the dominion of France, was governed as one province, and after its conquest by the British, in 1760, was considered as such until 1791; when the colony was divided into two provinces by an order of the King in Council, viz.—the *Lower* or *Eastern*, in which the French population resided; and the *Upper* or *Western*, to which the refugee loyalists from the United States and emigrants from Britain chiefly resorted. After the rebellion of 1837, '38, '39, the two provinces were reunited, and on the passing of the Act of Union in 1840, and the consequent alterations in the new Legislative Assembly, the electoral divisions and boundaries of counties were altered. The existing arrangements will be shewn in the chapter on Population; in the present chapter the geographical features will be preserved as better calculated to afford a correct idea of the physical features of the country.

The whole province, exclusive of the adjacent regions claimed by the Hudson's Bay Company, may be said to extend in a S.W. direction from the island of Anticosti, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to the S. extremity of Lake Erie, a distance of 1000 miles. From Lake Erie to the N.W. boundary of the colony, in the parallel of 50° N., the distance, as the crow flies, is 600 miles, and from Quebec to the N.W. limits of Lake Superior, the distance is nearly 1000 miles. The largest portion of the province is situated between the parallels of 45° to 50° N.; but the fine districts between Lakes Ontario, Erie, and Huron, extend from 45° to 41° 30' N. in a S.W. direction for nearly 400 miles, with a breadth varying from 50 to 150 miles.

The coast of Labrador lies between the parallels of 50° and 60° N.; a rigorous climate and sterile soil have prevented its colo-

nization. The boundaries of the province on the N., N.E., and N.W., have not been clearly defined, and the area has been variously estimated; in Eastern or Lower Canada, exclusive of Labrador, the river and gulf of St. Lawrence, and the lakes, the area is about 210,000 square English miles. The gulf and river of St. Lawrence cover upwards of 50,000 square miles. The vast lakes and numerous rivers in Western or Upper Canada render it difficult to give approximate accuracy to the landed area.

The natural features of Canada partake of the most romantic sublimities and picturesque beauties; indeed the least imaginative beholder cannot fail to be struck with the alternations of ranges of mountains, magnificent rivers, immense lakes, boundless forests, extensive prairies, and foaming cataracts.

Beginning with the bold sea-coast of the ocean-like river St. Lawrence, it may be observed that the eastern parts are high, mountainous, and covered with forests on both sides of the St. Lawrence to its very edge; on the northern side the mountains run parallel with the river to Quebec, where they take a W. and S.W. course: on the southern side the mountainous range does not approach within 60 miles of Quebec, when it quits the parallel of the river and runs in a S.W. and S. direction into the United States. The mountains S. of the St. Lawrence rise abruptly at Percé, between the Bay of Chaleur and the Bay of Gaspé. They follow the course of the river at a greater distance from its banks than those on the opposite side, and are connected by the Green Mountains of Vermont with the loftier ridge of the Alleghanies, which divide the tributaries of the Atlantic from those of the Ohio. The country situated between the mountain ranges on either side of the river and the boundary line of East Canada in 45° north, forms the valley of the St. Lawrence. In order to give a clear view of this valley, it may be well to divide it into sections, and then treat briefly of the rivers and lakes throughout the province—beginning with the sea-coast.

I. NORTH SIDE OF THE ST. LAWRENCE.—The most northerly and easterly section of the province of Eastern Canada, extending from Ance au Sablon on the Labrador coast to the Saguenay river, lat. $48^{\circ} 5'$, long. $69^{\circ} 37'$, occupies a front of 650 miles, of which little more is known than the appearance of the coast, as noted from time to time by fisher-

men and hunters. Bold mountainous features generally characterise the coast line; in some places the range recedes from the shores of the gulf and river St. Lawrence to the extent of 12 or 15 miles, leaving a deep swampy flat or moss-bed nearly three feet in depth, while in others (as at Portneuf, 40 miles E. of the Saguenay) the shores are of moderate elevation, and composed alternately of cliffs of light-coloured sand, and tufts or clumps of evergreens.

The country between the two points above-stated, is well watered by numerous rivers, among which may be mentioned the Grande and Petite Bergeronnes, the Portneuf, Missisiquinak, Betsiamites, Bustard, Manicougan, Ichimanipistic (or seven islands), St. John, St. Austins, and Esquimaux.

II. The second geographical division of the province N. of the river St. Lawrence, is that comprised within the mouths of the Saguenay and St. Maurice rivers, which form the great highways to the northern territories, and ramify in various directions with numerous lesser streams and lakes. The distance between the Saguenay and the St. Maurice is about 200 miles. From Quebec to the Saguenay there is a lofty and clearly defined range of mountains; from Cape Tourment, the ridge is unbroken (save where rivers find their exits in the St. Lawrence) to 15 miles below Saguenay. Beyond this coast border, the country is in some places flat, in others undulated by chains of hills of moderate height, and well watered by numerous lakes and rivers; among the latter are the St. Charles, the Montmorenci, the Great River, or St. Ann's, the Riviere du Gouffre, Black River, &c.

The country N. W. of Quebec, between that city and the *St. Maurice*, is not so strongly marked as on the S. E. towards the Saguenay; the land gently ascends from the St. Lawrence banks, presenting an extremely picturesque prospect, the effect of the rich grouping of water, wood, and highly cultivated ground being heightened by the shadowy forms of remote and lofty mountains. The rivers Jacques Cartier, Portneuf, St. Ann's and Batiscan, with their numerous tributaries, tend also to fertilize and adorn this delightful district.

III. The third territorial section N. of St. Lawrence, embraces the country lying between the St. Maurice river and the junction of the Ottawa and St. Lawrence, where West and East Canada meet. The aspect

of the country from 5 to 15 miles from the river's bank is marked by slightly elevated table ridges, with occasional abrupt acclivities and plains of moderate extent.

The islands of Montreal, Jesus, and Perrot, situate in the river St. Lawrence, come within this section. Montreal, the largest of the three, is of a triangular shape, 32 miles long by 10 broad, lying at the confluence of the Ottawa and St. Lawrence, and separated on the N.W. from Isle Jesus, by the *rivière des Prairies*. Montreal exhibits a surface nearly level, with the exception of a mountain (*Côteau St. Pierre*) and one or two hills of slight elevation, from which flow numerous streams and rivulets. The island is richly cultivated and tastefully adorned. Isle Jesus, N.W. of Montreal, 21 miles long by 6 broad, is everywhere level, fertile, and admirably tilled; off its S.W. end is Isle Bizard, about 1 mile in length and nearly oval, well cleared and tenanted. Isle Perrot lies off the S.W. end of Montreal, 7 miles long by 3 broad; level, sandy, and not well cleared; the small islets de la Paix are annexed to the seigniorship of Isle Perrot, and serve for pasturage.

Little is known of the interior of that portion of the province which is bounded by the Ottawa or Grand River; so far as it has been explored, it is not distinguished by the boldness which characterises the eastern section of Lower Canada; now and then small ridges and extensive plains are met with, receding from the bed of the Ottawa, whose margin is an alluvial flat, flooded often by the spring freshes and autumnal rains, to the extent of a mile from the river's bed. The Bytown tract, extending 200 miles up the Ottawa, to the Upper Alouettes lake is in general level or gently sloping, and is traversed by several tributaries of the Ottawa, towards which it gradually declines.

IV. SOUTH SIDE OF THE ST. LAWRENCE.—We now turn to the region on the south of the St. Lawrence, beginning as before at the sea coast—on which the extensive county and district of Gaspé is situate. This large tract of territory which extends 90 miles from north to south, and has a sea coast of 380 miles, with a range of mountains skirting the St. Lawrence to the N., and another at no remote distance from the shores of Ristigouche river and Bay of Chaleur;—between these ridges is an elevated and broken valley, occasionally intersected by deep ravines. The district is well wooded, and watered by numerous rivers and lakes; the

soil rich, and yielding abundant crops when tilled. The sea-beach is low (with the exception of the lofty and perpendicular cliffs of Cape Gaspé) and is frequently used as the highway of the territory; behind it, the land rises in high, round, and well wooded hills. The chief rivers are the Ristigouche, into which fall the Pseudy, Goumitz, Guadamonichou, Mistoué, and Matapediac; the Grand and Little Nouvelle, Grand and Little Cascapediac, Caplin, Bonaventure, East Nouvelle, and Port Daniel, which discharge themselves into the Bay of Chaleur;—Grand and Little Pabos, Grand and Little River, and Mal Bay River, flowing into the Gulf of St. Lawrence:—the river St. John, and north-east and south-west branches, fall into Gaspé Bay. There are also many lakes.

V. The country comprised between the W. boundary of Gaspé, and the E. of the Chaudière river, fronts the St. Lawrence river to the N.W. for 250 miles, and is bounded on the S.E. by the high lands dividing the British territories from those of the United States. These high lands are 62 miles from the St. Lawrence at their nearest point, but on approaching the Chaudière river, they diverge southwardly. The physical aspect of this district, is not so mountainous as the opposite bank of the St. Lawrence; it may more properly be characterised as a hilly region, abounding in extensive vallies. The immediate border of the St. Lawrence is flat, soon however rising in irregular ridges, and attaining considerable height, and forming an extent of table-land; which, at the distance of 15 to 20 miles from the shores of the St. Lawrence, gently descends towards the river St. John, beyond which it again reascends, acquiring a greater degree of altitude towards the sources of the Allegash, and finally merging in the Connecticut range of mountains.

VI. The last section of Lower Canada, S. of the St. Lawrence, is the exceedingly valuable tract W. of the river Chaudière fronting the St. Lawrence, and having in its rear the high lands of Connecticut, and the parallel of 45° of N. lat., which constitutes the S. and S.E. boundary of Eastern Canada, where the latter is divided from the American States of New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York. The physical aspect greatly varies throughout this extensive section; at the mouth of the Chaudière the banks of the St. Lawrence still retain the boldness for which they are remarkable at Quebec and Point Levi, but proceeding

westward, they gradually subside to a moderate elevation, till they sink into the flats of Baie du Febre, and form the marshy shore of Lake St. Peter, the remainder of the country being a richly luxuriant plain. Proceeding from Lake St. Peter towards Montreal, the majestic grandeur of the country about Quebec contrasts with the picturesque champagne beauties of Richelieu, Verchères, Chambly, and La Prairie districts. In the former especially, the eye of the spectator is delighted with a succession of fertile fields, luxuriant meadows, flourishing settlements, neat homesteads, gay villages, and even delightful villas, adorning the banks of the Richelieu, the Yamaska, and the St. Lawrence, whilst in the distance are seen the towering mountain tops of Rouville and Chambly, Rougemont, Mount Johnson, and Boucherville. As the country recedes from the St. Lawrence banks to the E. and S.E., it gradually swells into ridges, becomes progressively more hilly, and finally assumes a mountainous character towards lakes Memphramagog and St. Francis, beyond which it continues to preserve more or less a similar aspect, to the borders of the Chaudière, and the height of land at the Connecticut's sources. Colonel Bouchette, the surveyor-general of Lower Canada, to whose valuable observations I am so much indebted in this volume, is of opinion that the range of hills traversing Bolton, Orford, &c., are a continuation of the Green Mountains, which form a conspicuous ridge running from S. to W. through the State of Vermont. Mr. W. E. Logan, the provincial geologist, says, "that between Montreal and Quebec the valley of the St. Lawrence has a general N.E. course, and presents a flat surface on each bank of the river. This plain extends from 12 to 20 miles in breadth on the N.W. side of the river, to the flank of a wide-spread, hilly, but not very elevated country. On the S.E. side of the river the plains are 30 to 40 miles wide, and with the intervention of a few moderate undulations, reach the foot of a range called the Green Mountains of Vermont, which, after entering Canada, decline in height; but a few isolated peaks are 4000 feet above the sea. A continuous mountain-belt bounds the S.E. side, presenting a gently undulating surface. These ranges of mountain and valley are parallel to one another, and to the St. Lawrence." Several isolated mountains rise from the valleys or plains of Yamaska and Chambly, and give a romantic interest to

the scenery, the beauty of which is increased by numerous rivers, lakes, and rivulets winding in every direction. The chief rivers are the Chaudière, which forms the eastern boundary, the Beaucecour, Nicolet (two branches), St. Francis, Yamaska, Richelieu (or Chambly), Chateauguay and Salmon: all but the three last having their source within the province. The chief lakes are the Memphramagog, of which part belongs to Canada, and part to the United States; Seawaniwipus, Tomcobi, St. Francis, Nicolet, Pitt, William, Trout, and many others of less importance.

Dr. Thomas Rolfe, who has laboured strenuously in behalf of Canada, remarks, that "from 100 miles below Quebec to 100 miles above Montreal, on both sides of the St. Lawrence, there is a most beautiful country, not only cleared, cultivated, and thickly settled, but actually adorned with a continuous line of villages on either bank. There is not a point from which the spire of a spacious and elegant parish church does not greet the eye, and frequently there are many to be seen in the same view. The eastern portion of Canada, and probably the eastern townships, contain the greatest variety of beautiful scenery; mountain, rock, hill, dale, plain, forest, water-fall, lake, and river."

Having thus briefly shown the geographical divisions of East Canada, we may proceed to the examination of the great artery which passes through both divisions of the province, and the islands and districts adjacent, beginning with the

GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE, which receives the waters of the numerous lakes and rivers of the Canadian portion of the American continent, and is formed by the western coast of Newfoundland, the eastern shores of Labrador, the eastern extremity of the province of New Brunswick, part of Nova Scotia, and the island of Cape Breton; and communicates with the Atlantic by three different channels; namely, by the Gut of Canso (a narrow passage dividing Cape Breton from Nova Scotia), by a considerably wider channel between Cape North, in Cape Breton isle, and Cape Ray, in Newfoundland; and by the narrow straits of Belle-isle, which separate the coast of Labrador from Newfoundland. The distance from Cape Rosier, Gaspé Bay, lat. $48^{\circ} 50' 41''$, long. $64^{\circ} 15' 21''$, to Cape Ray, in Newfoundland, lat. $47^{\circ} 36' 49''$, long. $59^{\circ} 21'$, is 79 leagues; and from Nova Scotia to Labrador the dis-

tance is 106 leagues. There are several islands in the Gulf—the one most dangerous to navigators, from its position, the steepness of its shores, and the dense fogs frequent on this coast, is in the principal entrance, between Newfoundland and Cape Breton, in lat. $47^{\circ} 12' 38''$, long. $60^{\circ} 11' 21''$, compass variation, $23^{\circ} 45'$ W. The isle is named St. Paul's, and is small and barren. On the S. side of the bay is Prince Edward's or St. John's island, which extends in a crescent-like form 123 miles, but is at its narrowest part only 12 miles across. To the northward are the small Magdalen islands, 11 in number, between the parallels of $47^{\circ} 50'$ and $47^{\circ} 38'$ N. lat., and $61^{\circ} 27'$ and 62° W. long., which were granted to Sir Isaac Coffin as a reward for his naval services. Five or six of them are inhabited by French Canadian, and English and Irish settlers, altogether numbering 1000, who carry on a profitable fishery. Magdalen isle, the largest, is 17 leagues in length, but very narrow, being in some places not more than a mile wide. North of the Magdalens is Brion's island, and beyond this are the Bird isles or rocks; the most northerly portion being in lat. $47^{\circ} 50' 28''$, long. $61^{\circ} 12' 53''$.

The river St. Lawrence, from the magnificent basin of Lake Superior in East Canada, has a course to the sea of nearly 3,000 miles, and a varying breadth of from 1 to 90 miles. Including the lakes Ontario, Erie, and Huron, through which it passes, it is navigable for ships of a large class very nearly 2,000 miles, and the remainder of its course for barges, batteaux, and vessels drawing little water, of from 10 to 15 and even 60 tons burthen. The remotest spring of the St. Lawrence, if we consider the Canadian lakes as merely extensive widenings of it, is the stream called St. Lewis in lat $48^{\circ} 30'$ N., long. about 93° W., from which its general direction through lakes Superior and Huron is S.E. to Lake Erie—nearly due E. from that lake, and then N.E. to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It receives in its majestic course most of the rivers that have their sources in the extensive range of mountains called the Land's Height; and also those intersecting the ridge which commences on its south bank, and runs nearly south-west to Lake Champlain. From the sea to Montreal, this superb river is called the St. Lawrence, from thence to Kingston in Upper Canada, the Cataragui or Iroquois; between Lakes Ontario and Erie, the Niagara; between lakes Erie and

St. Clair the Detroit; between lakes St. Clair and Huron the St. Clair; and between lakes Huron and Superior the distance is called the Narrows, or Falls of St. Mary. The St. Lawrence discharges into the ocean annually about 4,277,880 million of tons of fresh water, of which 2,112,120 million of tons may be reckoned melted snow; the quantity discharged before the thaw comes on, being 1,512 million of tons per day for 210 days, and the quantity after the thaw begins, being 25,560 million per day for 125 days, the depths and velocity when in and out of flood duly considered: hence a ton of water being nearly equal to 55 cubic yards of pure snow, the St. Lawrence frees a country of more than 2,000 miles square, covered to the depth of three feet. According to Mr. McTaggart, the solid contents in cubic feet of the St. Lawrence, embracing lakes Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie, and Ontario, is estimated at 1,547,792,360,000 cubic feet, and the superficial area being 72,930 square miles, the water therein would form a cubic column of nearly 22 miles on each side! The embouchure of this noble river is in that part of the Gulf of St. Lawrence where the island of Anticosti divides the mouth of the river into two branches.

This island, 130 miles long and 30 broad, has neither bay nor harbour capable of affording efficient shelter for shipping in bad weather. The aspect is generally low, but on the north of the island the shore is more elevated, and three lofty mountain peaks, with high table land, relieve the monotonous appearance of so large an extent of flat country. The rivers are of no great magnitude, and too little is known of the soil and nature of the interior to permit a decided opinion being formed on its quality; from the position of the island it may be supposed to be alluvial: it is as yet uninhabited, but as land becomes more valuable, will doubtless be colonized.

In 1828 the crew of the *Granicus* were shipwrecked on this island, and unable to obtain any sustenance on its uncultivated shores, they were driven by the fearful cravings of hunger to cannibalism, and the last wretched being is supposed to have perished for want of any more of his unfortunate companions to prey on. The bones and mangled remains of the slain, were found scattered about on the wild coast of Anticosti, as if a struggle had taken place in the last extremity.

Two light-houses have been erected on the island, one at the east point, the other at the south-west. The ship-channel between Anticosti and the main land of East Canada is about 40 miles broad.

On passing this island, the river St. Lawrence expands to a breadth of 90 miles; and in mid-channel both coasts are visible, the mountains on the north shore having their snow-capped crests elevated to a vast height, and appearing more continuous in their outline than the Pyrenean range.

At the Bay of Seven Islands, which derives its name from the high and rugged islands which lie at its entrance, the St. Lawrence is 70 miles broad. There is deep water close to the islands, which appear to rise abruptly out of the sea; the centre of the bay forms a large basin, with a depth of from 10 to 50 fathoms; at its head, the land appears to sink low in the horizon, while that on each side is high and rugged.

From Seven Islands Bay to Pointe aux Pères, there is little to attract attention, except two very extraordinary mountains, close to each other, called the Paps of Matane, nearly opposite to which is the bold and lofty promontory of Mont Pelée, where the river is little more than 25 miles wide. After passing Isle St. Barnabé, the voyager arrives at Bic island (153 miles from Quebec), which is three miles in length, and nearly one in breadth. Good anchorage is found here. The adjoining seigniorship of Bic on the main land is mountainous, and very uneven.

Proceeding onwards, several beautiful groups of islands are passed in succession, viz., Green island, Red island, Hare island, Kamouraska island, the Pilgrims, Brandy Pots, and a variety of others, all wooded, and some of them inhabited and cultivated. The Brandy Pots cluster is about 103 miles from Quebec. Opposite Green island, on the north shore, is the mouth of the Saguenay river. The St. Lawrence is here 20 miles wide, with an average depth of 12 fathoms; and the village of Kamouraska in the county and seigniorship of the same name, is a favourite watering place of the Canadians. The mountains on both sides are very lofty, often terminating in capes or bold headlands, and producing an imposing effect; in general, and especially on the south side, a low, level, and cultivated tract of land, of various breadth, intervenes between the river and the mountain range, and the delicious verdure of its corn fields contrasts

finely with the sombre hue of the pine forests in the elevated and over-shadowing back ground. The cultivated Isle aux Coudres next meets the eye, and is followed by a delightful prospect of the settlement of the Bay of St. Paul, enclosed within an amphitheatre of high hills.

The Isle aux Coudres is 5 miles in length and 15 in circumference, and is distant about 2 miles from the north shore of the St. Lawrence river, and nearly opposite the Bay of St. Paul: compared with the neighbouring land it is low, but becomes more elevated towards the centre. The shore in a few places rises abruptly from the water, and is thickly covered with shrubs and creeping plants; in general, however, it is of easy ascent, and rendered picturesque by the numerous farms on it. The island was granted in 1687 to the ecclesiastics of the seminary of Quebec, to whom it still belongs. Although the breadth of the river is 13 miles, the navigation here becomes difficult, owing to the narrowness of the main ship-channel called the Traverse, which is contracted to 1,320 yards, by the Isle aux Coudres, the shoal of St. Roch, and English bank. There are two other channels, but the rapidity of the current is much greater in them than in the Traverse, and the holding-ground bad; notwithstanding, with a good pilot and a favourable wind, there is little or no risk. Where the river du Sud forms a large basin, and disembogues into the St. Lawrence, the latter is 11 miles in breadth, and the country assumes a charming aspect; the succession of villages, churches, telegraph stations, and farm-houses, all painted white, produce a dazzling contrast to the dark woods which clothe the rising grounds in the distance to their very summits, and present a landscape of varied beauty. Before arriving at the island of Orleans (four miles north-east of Quebec), Goose and Crane islands, and many smaller ones (almost all inhabited), are passed. Orleans, or Isle St. Laurent, 19 miles long, five and a half broad, and comprising an area of about 69 square miles, divides the river into two channels. The shores decline gradually to the beach, but the land rises considerably towards the western extremity of the isle, which is richly tilled by a population numbering 5,000, who derive much advantage from the sale of their horticultural and agricultural products in the neighbouring markets of Quebec. The south channel is always used by ships; the main-

land opposite is lofty, and in some places mountainous, but so well cultivated that a large tract in the vicinity of the Sud, which flows through a picturesque, extensive, fertile, and thickly settled country, has long been familiarly called the granary of the province.

The country below and above Quebec for some distance presents scenery whose beauty is unequalled in America, and probably in the world. From the eminence over which the post-road passes, or in sailing up the St. Lawrence, there are frequent prospects of immense extent and variety, consisting of lofty mountains, wide valleys, bold headlands, luxuriant forests, cultivated fields, pretty villages and settlements, some of them stretching up along the mountains:—fertile islands, with neat white cottages, rich pastures and well-tended flocks;—rocky islets, and tributary rivers, some rolling over precipices, and one of them, the Saguenay, like an inland mountain-lake, bursting through a perpendicular chasm in the granitic chain; while on the bosom of the St. Lawrence, with a breadth varying from 10 to 20 miles, ships, brigs, and schooners, either under sail or at anchor, with innumerable pilot-boats and river craft, in active motion, charm the eye of the immigrant or traveller.

The scenery, on approaching Quebec, is truly magnificent; on the left, point Levi, with its romantic church and cottages; on the right, the western part of Orleans isle, which closely resembles our own sweet Devonshire coast; beyond, the lofty mainland opens to view, and the spectator's attention is riveted by the magnificent falls of Montmorenci, a river as large as the Thames at Richmond, which precipitates its vast volume of constantly flowing waters over a perpendicular precipice 240 feet in height: the eye then runs along miles of richly cultivated country, terminating in a ridge of mountains, with the city and battlements of Quebec, rising in the form of an amphitheatre, cresting, as it were, the ridge of Cape Diamond, and majestically towering above the surrounding country, as if destined to be the capital of an empire.

Etymologists have exercised their ingenuity in tracing the origin of the word Quebec: some suppose it an Indian word signifying a strait: others are of opinion that it arose from the Normans exclaiming when they first beheld the lofty promontory —“*Que!-Bec!*”—It is even said that the

city owes its name to a place on the Seine, called *Caudebec*,—but Hawkins in his “Picture of Quebec,” states the word to be of Norman origin, and gives an engraving of a seal belonging to William de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, dated in the reign of Henry V., A.D. 1420. The legend or motto runs thus: “*Sigillum Willielmi de la Pole, Comitis Suffolchie, Domini de Hamburg et de Quebec.*” Suffolk was impeached by the Commons of England in 1450, and one of the charges against him was his unbounded influence in Normandy, where he lived and ruled like an independent prince; it is not therefore improbable that he enjoyed the French title of Count of Quebec in addition to his English honours.

Quebec Citadel is situated upon the N.E. extremity of a rocky ridge or promontory, called Cape Diamond, 350 feet above the St. Lawrence. The cape extends into the St. Lawrence towards point Levi on the opposite or right bank of the river, which is at this spot less than a mile in width.

The citadel (see Map, East Canada) is built on the peak of the promontory. About 40 acres are covered with the works, which are carried to the edge of the precipice. About 100 feet below the cliff on which the citadel is built is the elevated plain on which the city of Quebec stands, and this within a circuit of 3 miles is enclosed with strong fortifications connected with the commanding citadel. From the city there is a rapid descent of 200 feet to the river St. Lawrence, and within the narrow limits of the base of this precipice and the river, the lower town of Quebec is situated, opposite and contiguous to the shipping, where the merchants and traders carry on their useful pursuits. The N. side of the promontory has apparently been chosen as the site of the town, from its slope being more gradual than that on the southward, which is precipitous. To the N. the ground declines gently until within 100 feet of the St. Charles valley, when it becomes precipitous. The St. Lawrence flows to the southward of the city, where it is only 1314 yards wide, washes the base of the steep promontory of Cape Diamond, and receives the waters of the small river St. Charles, which flows to the N. of the city, their junction being in front of the town, where they expand into a considerable basin of $3\frac{3}{4}$ miles long, with a depth of 18 to 28 fathoms, forming the harbour of Quebec. The distance from one river to another across the ridge is rather more than

a mile. On sailing up the river, nothing of the city is seen until the spectator is nearly in a line between the W. point of Orleans isle and Point Levi, when there suddenly bursts upon the view an abrupt promontory 350 feet high, crowned with an impregnable citadel (the Gibraltar of the New World), surrounded by strong battlements, on which the British banners proudly wave; cathedrals and churches, warehouses, a fleet of ships at Wolf's Cove, and others at the wharfs; steamers plying in every direction; boats of every shape; ships on the stocks, or launching; the waters of the majestic cataract of Montmorenci rushing into the St. Lawrence over the projecting ledge; the churches, houses, fields, and woods of Beauport and Charlesbourg, with mountains in the distance; the high grounds, spire, &c. of St. Joseph; some Indian wigwams and canoes near Point Levi, and vast rafts or masses of timber descending the noble river from the forests on the Ottawa.

The city, as before observed, is nominally divided into two parts, called the Upper and Lower towns; the latter being built at the base of the promontory, level with high water, where the rock has been removed to make room for the houses, which are generally constructed in the old style, of stone, two or three stories high. The streets are narrow and ill ventilated. From the Lower to the Upper town there is a winding street (Mountain-street), extremely steep, which is commanded by judiciously planted cannon, and terminates at an elevation of 200 feet above the river, at the city walls, or "Break Neck Stairs," where the Upper town commences, extending its limits considerably to the westward, along the slope of the ridge, and up the promontory towards the Cape, to within 50 or 60 yards of its summit. The aspect is N., and it is on the whole well ventilated, although the streets are narrow and irregular. There are suburbs to each town; those of the Upper extend along the slope of the ridge called St. John's; those of the Lower, extend from the St. Charles along the valley called the "Rocks." The influence of the tides, which extend several leagues beyond Quebec, raises the waters at the confluence of the two rivers many feet above their ordinary level, and overflows the St. Charles valley, which rises gradually from the river to the northward, in a gentle slope for a few miles, until it reaches the mountains. This valley and slope is wholly under cultivation, and extremely rich and

picturesque. The ridge on which Quebec stands is also cultivated to the westward as far as Cape Rouge. A range of mountains to the northward, limits the extension of cultivation in that direction.

In 1662 Quebec did not contain more than 50 inhabitants; in 1759 the population was estimated at between 8 and 9000; in 1825 and 1831 the census gave as follows:—

	1825.		1831.	1848.
	Houses.	Pop.	Pop.	Pop.*
Quebec:—				No census.
Upper Town .	480	4,163	4,498	
Lower Town .	549	3,935	4,933	
Suburbs of—				
St. Roch . .	1,128	6,273	7,983	
St. John . .	843	6,025	6,918	
St. Lewis . .	120		1,583	
Total, exclusive of the Banlieue of St. John and St. Lewis .	3,120	20,396	25,916	

As a fortress Quebec may be ranked in the first class; the citadel on the highest point of Cape Diamond, is defended by a formidable combination of strongly constructed works; small batteries connected by ramparts, are continued from the edge of the precipice, to the gateway leading to the Lower town, which is commanded by cannon of a large calibre, and the approach to which, up Mountain-street, is enfiladed and flanked by large guns: a line of defence connects with the grand battery a redoubt of great strength, armed with 24 pounders, entirely overlooking the basin and passage of the river. Other lines add to the impregnability of Quebec, which, well garrisoned, secure to us the navigation of the St. Lawrence. There are five strong gates in the walls which surround the city: the entrance from the Lower town is by Prescott-gate. That portion of the promontory which declines in height by successive ridges towards the interior, is fortified by a series of regular works, viz.: a moat, covered way, and glacis, with exterior defences to obstruct an enemy. The face of the city towards the river is so steep, that excepting the passage by Mountain-street, it requires only a wall for its protection. Four Martello towers on the heights of Abraham, in front of the fortifications range the whole plain to the west-

* The population is now about 40,000.

ward. The armoury of Quebec is superior to that of most of the European capitals; it contains equipments for 25,000 men, which can be furnished at a few hours' notice.

On the W. and in front of the citadel are the celebrated plains of Abraham, on which Wolfe and Montcalm fought and perished, and to whose glorious memory the gallant Earl of Dalhousie has erected an obelisk with the following appropriate inscription:—*'Mortem virtus communem famam historia monumentum posteritas dedit. Hanc columnam in virorum illustrium memoriam WOLFE et MONTCALEM, P.C. Georgius, Comes de Dalhousie in Septentrionalis Americæ partibus ad Britannos, pertinentibus summum rerum administrans; opas per multos annos prætermisissum, quid duci egregio convenientius? Auctoritate promovens, exemplo stimulans, munificentia fovens. A.S. MDCCCXXXVII.—Georgio IV. Britanniarum Rege.'* Lord Aylmer, in 1831, erected a small column with the inscription,—"*Here died Wolfe in the arms of victory.*" And Sir Benjamin D'Urban, another brave soldier, in conjunction with the troops under his command in Canada, in 1818 raised a monument in memory of Wolfe on the plains of Abraham, consisting of a column 40 feet high, surmounted by a helmet enriched with laurel and a sword; after the design of a distinguished soldier and intelligent traveller, Sir James Alexander.

A great number of elegant and commodious public buildings adorn Quebec—such as the Hotel Dieu, the Ursuline Convent, the Jesuit's Monastery (now a barrack), the Protestant and Catholic Cathedrals, the Scotch Church, Lower Town Church, Trinity and Wesleyan Chapels, Exchange, Bank, Court House, Hospitals, Barracks, Gaol, Seminary, &c. The Roman Catholic cathedral is 216 feet long by 180 broad, and is capable of containing a congregation of 4000 people. It has a lofty dome, which produces an imposing effect. The religious services are performed with much ceremony; the bishop and 50 priests sometimes officiating. The Protestant cathedral, 136 feet long by 75 broad, is built in a plain style, and from its pure and simple taste, and neat spire, is much admired. The Scotch church is of less magnitude. Of three nunneries at Quebec, two have hospitals attached, in which great relief is administered to the poor. The *Hôtel-Dieu*, founded in 1637 by the Duchess d'Aiguillon, includes a convent, church, cemetery, gardens, and an excellent hospital,

where the prioress and 32 nuns are continually employed in ministering to the sick. The Ursuline convent, founded in 1639, by Madame de la Peltrie, is in the centre of the city, surrounded by five gardens. The nuns, 16 in number, maintain a strict seclusion, but educate many of their own sex. The embroidery, especially for sacerdotal robes, &c., is highly celebrated.

The grand parade in front of the castle, surrounded by the principal edifices; the esplanade along the exterior wall, where the troops are reviewed; the market-place, 250 feet long by 150 broad; and the noble aspect of many of the buildings, both public and private, give an animated appearance to the city.

On the 28th May, and on the 28th June, 1845, two great fires occurred, which destroyed much of the Lower town, and the dwellings of 20,000 of its inhabitants. The conflagration destroyed part of St. Vallier, all St. John suburbs, part of St. Lewis, nearly all St. Roche, and the west part of the Lower town gate. Many of the houses were built with wood after the French fashion. The first fire extended a mile through a densely peopled suburb before it could be checked.

The town in general is pretty much like an English or rather a French city, except that the houses are mostly roofed with shingles (small pieces of thin wood); many of the best houses, public buildings, and great warehouses, are, however, covered with tin or iron plates, which, owing to the dryness of the climate, retain their brightness for many years. There are several distilleries, breweries, tobacco, soap, candle, and other manufactories; and every description of tradesmen may be found in the Upper and Lower town. Many of the shops, or as they are called in America, stores, are fitted out with taste, and in most of them every variety of goods, from a needle to an anchor, or a ribbon to a cable, is to be found. A steam-ferry plies constantly between Quebec and the opposite shore at Point Levi. In severe winters this channel is completely frozen over, and a line of road is marked with beacons, by which provisions, hay, wood, &c., are conveyed to the metropolis.

Many ships are built at Quebec. On the W. point of Orleans were built the *Columbus* and the *Baron of Renfrew*, those vast leviathans of the deep which human ingenuity contrived to float on its bosom. These ocean castles were strongly framed, timbered and planked as lesser sized vessels, and not

put together like rafts as generally supposed. The length of the *Columbus* on deck was 320 feet, breadth 50, extreme depth 40 feet, and she had four gigantic masts, with every appurtenance in proportion; 3000 tons weight were put on board of her before launching. It may be remembered that she reached England safely, and was water-logged on her return to Canada; the equally huge *Baron of Renfrew* reached the Thames, and was wrecked off Gravelines.

Proceeding onwards the St. Lawrence again widens after passing Quebec, while the banks, gradually losing the elevation observable at Cape Diamond, become sloping, and delightfully varied with groves, churches, white cottages, orchards, and corn fields, until arriving at Richelieu Rapid, 45 miles above Quebec; thence to Three Rivers (52 miles), there is little change in the general aspect of the banks of the St. Lawrence, the high lands receding to the N. and S. with a low but cultivated country. About 6 miles above Three Rivers, the St. Lawrence expands itself over a level country, and forms Lake St. Peter, which is about 20 miles in length, by 15 in breadth, but very shallow. At the head of the delta of the lake, the St. Lawrence receives the comparatively small but beautiful river Richelieu; in some places called Chambly—at others, Sorel. To Montreal (90 miles from Three Rivers) the scenery is varied rather by the hand of man than by nature, with the exception of numerous alluvial and richly tilled islets; many parts are picturesque and highly cultivated, there being a succession of parishes mostly consecrated to the memory of some saint, and so thickly peopled as to appear one continued village; the N. shore, through which the post-road passes, is the most populous.

Montreal, formerly the Indian village of Hochelaga, now the capital of the province of Canada, in $45^{\circ} 31' N.$ lat., is situate upon the N. or left bank of the St. Lawrence, at the head of the ship navigation of the river, about 600 miles from the sea, and upon the southernmost point of an island bearing the same name, which is formed by the river St. Lawrence on the S., and by a branch of the Ottawa, or Grand River, on the N. The island is 32 miles long, by 10 to 12 broad: its surface is an almost uniform flat, with the exception of an isolated hill or mountain on its W. extremity, which rises from 500 to 600 feet higher than the river level. Along its base, and particularly up its sides,

are thickly interspersed corn fields, orchards, and villas, above which, to the very summit of the mountain, trees grow in luxuriant variety. The prospect from its summit, though wanting the sublime grandeur of the view from Cape Diamond at Quebec, is exceedingly picturesque: on the south, the blue hills of Vermont, and all around a vast extent of thickly inhabited, richly cultivated and fertile country, embellished with woods, waters, churches, cottages, and farms—below it the placid city of Montreal—its shipping and river craft, and the fortified island of St. Helena, altogether producing a scene of soft and singular beauty. In 1610, the spot on which the city stands contained an Indian village, in which the French formed a missionary station. Within a mile to the N.W. of the town the range of the mountain gradually declines for a few miles to the W. and N., to the level of the surrounding country. The bank of the river upon which Montreal is built, has a gradual elevation of from 20 to 30 feet, but declines in the rear of the town, where there is a canal to carry off any accumulation of water: the land then again rises towards the N. to a higher ridge. The wharfs are said to be better than any other similar structures in America, and consist of a range of massive masonry more than a mile in extent. The harbour adds greatly to the beauty of the city, and from the "Forwarding Houses" on the La Chine canal, to the foot of the current of St. Mary, a distance of 2 miles, the river St. Lawrence is covered with ships, steamers, barges, and boats of every description, during the time the navigation is open. Extensive basins are being constructed along the enlarged La Chine canal, to afford the means of steam-boat communication with the great lakes; and a channel is being deepened in Lake St. Peter, to render it navigable for vessels of a large draught of water. By means of steam-tugs from Quebec to Montreal, 180 miles distance, the Canadian metropolis will probably become one of the most important seaports in America. The city, comprised within the Upper and Lower town, is divided into wards, and in 1844 the number of inhabitants in each ward was:—St. Mary, 12,285; St. Lawrence, 12,235; Queen's, 13,571; West, 2,285; East, 1,912; Central, 1,805. Total, Males, 20,404; Females, 23,191, in 6,252 houses. Of these 19,041 were French Canadians; 8,863 British ditto; English, 3,161; Scotch, 2,712; Irish, 9,595; United States, 701;

from other places, 212. In 1844 there belonged to the Church of Rome, 29,280 citizens; 6,706 to the Church of England, 4,349 to the Church of Scotland; and 1,255 of other and various denominations. The far largest portion of the capital and enterprise of Montreal belongs to the inhabitants of British origin. The good taste, liberality, and zealous endeavours of the Hon. James McGill contributed greatly to the adornment of this handsome and prosperous city. The Hôtel-Dieu, a conventual structure, and the Montreal General Hospital, built in 1822, by voluntary subscription, at a cost of £6,000, are excellent charities. The St. Sulpician Seminary is a large building, occupying three sides of a square adjoining the cathedral. In this institution, and in the McGill College, all branches of learning are taught at moderate charges. The large nunnery of Notre-Dame has a superior and 60 sisters, who receive boarders at a small charge, and prepare teachers, whom they send to different districts. Another large nunnery, called the *Sœurs-Gris* (Grey Sisters), consists of a superior and 24 nuns, who admit into their spacious and charitable mansion the infirm poor, where, in a christian spirit, they administer spiritual consolation, food, and medicine. There are several handsome English and Scotch churches. The English Episcopal church is a fine building with a lofty spire. Whole streets of private buildings, many of them outside the city (whose entrenchments have been levelled some years since), have been recently constructed. Various public structures belonging to banks and corporate institutions adorn the capital. During the riots of 1849, on the passing of the Rebellion Losses Indemnity Bill, the building in which the Canadian Parliament met was burnt by the mob, and the library of the Legislature, one of the most valuable in British America, was destroyed. The city and private houses are lit by a gas company, and the corporation possess extensive water-works. The Harbour Commissioners have expended upwards of £100,000 on the improvement of the harbour, which affords a revenue of more than £10,000 a-year. The three principal streets are parallel with the river, and intersect each other at right angles; the houses are for the most part of a greyish stone, covered with sheet iron or tin; many of them are handsome structures. Among the principal edifices are the Hôtel-Dieu, the Convent of Notre Dame, the General

Hospital, the New College, Hôpital Général des Sœurs Gris, the French Cathedral, English and Scotch churches, Court House, Government House, Nelson's Monument, Barracks, Gaol, &c., &c. The Roman Catholic cathedral is the most splendid temple of worship in the New World, and its exterior grandeur is scarcely surpassed in the Old. It was commenced in 1821, finished in 1829, and dedicated to the Virgin Mary. In length it is 255 feet, in breadth 134, and the height of the walls, which are faced with cut stone, is 112 feet. The architecture is of the rich Gothic of the thirteenth century. It has six massive towers, between which is a promenade along the covered roof 25 feet wide, elevated 112 feet. There are 7 chapels and altars, and 9 spacious aisles: the high altar resembling that of St. Peter's at Rome—the pulpit that of Strasburg cathedral. The E. window behind the grand altar is 70 feet high by 33 feet broad; the other windows 36 feet by 10. It is surrounded by a fine terrace, and its chime of bells, clocks, altars, &c., correspond with the magnificent exterior. This magnificent structure contains 1214 pews, and will accommodate 12,000 persons, who may disperse in 6 minutes by 5 public and 3 private entrances. There are various public institutions in Montreal, which indicate the advanced state of the colony. The University College has Professors of Divinity, Classics, Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, Medicine, Surgery, Midwifery, Anatomy, Materia Medica. There is a College of Medicine for instruction in all branches of the healing art. Among the other institutions are the High School of Montreal, Baptist College, Congregational Theological Institute, Royal Grammar School, National School, British and Canadian School, Free ditto, Natural History Society, Mechanics' Institute, Mutual Instruction Society, Shakespear Club, several public libraries belonging to different associated bodies; *National societies* of St. George, St. Patrick, St. Andrew, German, and St. Jean Baptiste. Various Religions, Bible and Missionary, Tract and Sunday-School Associations. *Benevolent institutions*, viz.:—the Montreal General Hospital, Lying-in Hospital, Dispensaries, Lunatic, Magdalen, and Orphan Asylums; 6 Turf, Cricket, and Curling Clubs, four "Free-masons and 8 "Odd-fellows' "Lodges.

In the extent and importance of her trade—in the beauty of her public and private buildings—in the gay appearance of her

shops, and in all the external signs of wealth, Montreal is rapidly increasing. Its population in 1825 was 22,357; in 1831, 27,297; in 1844, by census, 44,093; and the city, together with the suburbs and the remainder of the island, are estimated at 70,000. The whole island is comprised in one seigniory, and belongs to the St. Sulpicians, who are consequently possessed of much power, which, however, they use with moderation, and are by no means rigorous in exacting the *lods et ventes* due to them on the mutation of land, which are usually compounded for.

The Ottawa, or Grand River, divides Eastern and Western Canada, and has a course between Montreal and Lake Temiscaming of above 350 miles in length; but if we regard this lake as only an extension of the river, in the same manner as we have already done Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, Superior, &c., while examining the course of the St. Lawrence, we must attribute the source of the river to a remote spot in the interior, more than 100 miles from Lake Temiscaming. On this lake the Hudson Bay Company have a trading post, but of the surrounding country we have no accurate description—indeed, the upper part of the river above the Falls and Portage des Allumettes, is little used except by the fur-traders, though up to that point it is regularly frequented by the *lumberers*, who find profitable and abundant employment in floating down the river, in rafts constructed for the purpose, vast quantities of pine and oak. The natural obstructions to this traffic have been greatly removed by several slides erected in various parts of the Ottawa and its tributaries. At the Allumettes, the Ottawa divides into two channels, the one passing N.E., the other S.W. of an island 15 miles long by 4 broad, which is said to be eminently fertile and fast settling; it then forms three small lakes called the Allumettes, the Mud, and the Musk Rat. Eight miles below the junction of these channels is Fort Coulonge, a trading port of the Hudson's Bay company, near which is a flourishing settlement.

Four miles further south, the Ottawa again divides, and forms an island 20 miles in length by 7 in breadth, called the Grand Calumet, and the rapids and falls at this point are exceedingly grand.

There are four principal chutes,—one, especially being wild and romantic in the extreme, from the narrow, lofty, and pre-

cipitous channel down which the vast torrent rushes with terrific violence, as if roused to fury by the opposition it had met with in its mighty career. The effect is greatly heightened by the close vicinity in which the traveller may behold this magnificent cataract. Another of these falls Mr. Barker (an eye-witness) describes as having a peculiar character. He speaks of the water as falling at first in the shape of a horse-shoe, placid and smooth as glass or oil, until it meets in the centre of the chute, and changes at once into noisy boiling foam. He also mentions a slide, over which immense quantities of red pine are annually carried, excavated in canal form out of the solid rock on the island side of the chutes. It was built by the provincial government in 1844 at a cost of more than £11,000.

For the next 10 miles after leaving the cascades, the Ottawa is picturesquely diversified by groups of beautiful and richly wooded islets, which separate it into numerous channels, through which the impetuous waters rush with various degrees of violence, while the romantic singularity of the prospect is enhanced by the banks being chiefly composed of white marble, which may be traced for several miles. At the end of this wild labyrinth of wood and water the magnificent Lake des Chats meets the view; its extreme length is 15 miles, and its average breadth 1, but several deep bays encroach upon the land, and extend its breadth in places to nearly 3 miles.

On the E. Canada side are the townships of Onslow, Clarendon, and Litchfield; and on the west side are those of Macnab, Horton, and Ross. The township of Bristol also is in a flourishing state. Three rivers, the Mississippi (or Nisisippi), the Madawaska, and the Bouchere, empty themselves into the lake, and are fine streams, much used by the *lumberers*; their shores are gradually being cultivated, and even in the interior there are several settled tracts of land. Richly wooded islets adorn the lake, which is also distinguished by the singularly glassy appearance peculiar to the waters of the lovely Ottawa.

Kinnell Lodge, and other mansions, are romantically situated on the south bank of the lake, a few miles below the Rapides des Chats, which are 3 miles long, and pass amid a labyrinth of islands, through which they rush with great violence, terminating in the Falls des Chats, that to

the number of 15 or 16, extend in a curved line across the river. The Falls are divided by wooded islands, and are from 16 to 20 feet in height. The bed of the Ottawa then contracts, but about six miles below this point it again expands, and forms the basin of Lake Chaudière, which is 18 miles long by 5 broad, and terminates like the Lake des Chats in rapids, which dash on through the small grove-clad islets with different degrees of violence, until they reach the vortex of those broken, irregular, and extraordinary chasms called the Great and Little Chaudière (Kettle). The principal falls are 60 feet in height by 212 in width, and an immense basin of circular rock attracts by forcible indraught a considerable proportion of the boiling waters, while those beneath, in their violent struggle to escape, send up clouds of spray which conceal the bottom of the cataract, and ascend, at intervals, above its summit. A large portion of the water being unaccounted for, is supposed to escape by subterraneous channels, for half a mile further down the river the water comes boiling up, it is said, from the Chaudière. Among the strange tales told concerning these falls, is one of a cow having been one morning carried over by the waters into the Little Chaudière, and coming up uninjured at Fox Point, 10 miles down the river. Immediately below these falls, where the stream still rushes in rapid eddies, bridges have been thrown over it, and offer singular specimens of science and skill, placed as they are by the side of one of nature's grandest and most wild objects. The chain of these union bridges, as they are called from their connecting Eastern and Western Canada, consists of four principal parts, two of which are truss bridges, overhanging the channels, and unsupported by piers; a third is a straight wooden bridge, and a fourth is built partly of dry stone (with two cut lime-stone arches) and partly of wood.

The truss bridge over the broadest channel is 212 feet long, 30 feet wide, and 40 above the surface of the Ottawa. The township of Eardly extends along Lake Chaudière, and is followed by the important and rapidly increasing settlement of Hull, which is watered by the large river Gatineau, and contains valuable mines of iron and quarries of marble.

Below the Chaudière Falls and union bridges, the Ottawa has an uninterrupted navigation for steam-boats to Grenville,

60 miles distant. The current is gentle, the river banks low and generally flooded in spring to a considerable distance, especially on the north or Lower Canada side; but though the scenery is somewhat tame, it is always pleasing, and as described by colonel Bouchette, the frequently varying width of the river—its numerous islands—the luxuriant foliage of its banks—and the growing settlements appearing here and there on the skirts of the forest, or the margin of the stream, in themselves possessed of sufficient interest to preserve from monotony this part of "Ottawa's tide."

At Grenville commences the impetuous rapid termed the Long Sault, which is only descended by *voyageurs*, or raftsmen of experienced skill and energy. Below Long Sault the Ottawa continues, at intervals, rapid and unnavigable as far as Point Fortune (immediately opposite the east outline of Chatham), where it expands into the lake of the Two Mountains, and finally forms a junction with the St. Lawrence river below the cascades, where the remarkable hue of the waters of the Ottawa strongly contrasting with the blueish-green of those of the St. Lawrence, renders the line of confluence distinctly visible.

The Ottawa region is within the temperate zone; in general level, or moderately undulating, well watered, and covered with fine timber, which affords an unfailing source of remunerative employment. The Bytown tract extending for 200 miles, from the embouche of the Ottawa to the Upper Allumettes lake gently slopes to the river, has extensive level tracts of fertile soil, and is the chief seat of the Ottawa settlers. The progress of Bytown, on the right bank of the Ottawa, has been very rapid; in 1831 it contained only 150 wooden houses.

The *Saguenay River* rises in Lake St. John, which is situated between $48^{\circ} 27'$ and $48^{\circ} 51'$ N. lat., and is about 100 miles in circumference. It has a course of 108 miles before its junction with the river St. Lawrence, 100 miles below Quebec; it varies in width, and its passage, like that of other American rivers, is interrupted by foaming torrents. At its confluence with the St. Lawrence at Tadoussac in lat. $48^{\circ} 5'$, long. $69^{\circ} 37'$, the Saguenay discharges not less than 2,500,000 cubic feet of water per hour, double the quantity that the St. Lawrence sends past Quebec. The depth at its mouth in mid-channel has not been ascertained; captain Martin could not find

bottom with 330 fathoms of line; two miles higher the soundings were 110 fathoms, and at 70 miles from the St. Lawrence, from 50 to 60 fathoms. It has been since stated, that a ridge of rocks below the surface of the water, lies across the Saguenay's mouth, through which there is a channel 120 feet deep, and that in the middle the depth increases to 810 feet; if this be so, the bed of the Saguenay must, necessarily, be 600 feet below that of the St. Lawrence, into which it falls. Its reported terrific whirlpools do not exist. Thirty rivers pour their tributary waters into the Saguenay, many of them navigable for large boats. The banks of this noble stream vary from 200 to 2,000 feet in height, rising in some places perpendicularly from the river's side; the scenery throughout being wildly magnificent. The cliffs of the *Capes de la Trinité* beetles over the broad, rapid and deep torrent to the elevation of 1,800 feet, and sink plumb down 900 feet below its surface. An experienced traveller who visited the Saguenay in 1815, says—"the whole descent from Ha-Ha Bay to Tadoussac can be compared to nothing that I have ever seen for the magnificence and extent of its scenery, unless, perhaps, to the passage through the highlands of the Hudson, if you can imagine that chain of heights continued for 40 miles, and its elevation increased some hundreds of feet." The Point aux Bouleaux and the land for some distance on the west side of its mouth, are alluvial deposits, containing probably the richest soil in the world, being composed of a species of soapy-grey marl, from 30 to 40 feet deep. There is a very remarkable harbour, 40 miles from the mouth of the Saguenay, called Bay de Has, or Ha-Ha Bay, capable of affording shelter to the largest ships of the line, and to the whole navy of England, which may sail directly into the bay with the same wind that brought them to its entrance. The bay is from 7 to 9 miles in length, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ in width, with good anchorage varying from 15 to 35 fathoms. Ha-Ha Bay opens into another bay or basin. Vast tracts of arable land, with a rich soil of blue and grey marl, surround these singular bays, extending to Lake Kiguami, which is joined to the Saguenay by the circuitous route of the Chicoutimi river. In the neighbourhood of Ha-Ha Bay, which is surrounded by hills, a European settlement has been commenced; and the saw-mills belonging to Mr. Price

have encouraged cultivation in the interior. Grain, especially oats, thrive, as do also potatoes. The fixed population is about 5,000. There are several sawing mill establishments around Ha-Ha Bay, and also above and below it on the Saguenay, which is well adapted for water power. The saw logs, though not so large in butt and stem as the produce of the Ottawa, or of New Brunswick, grow to a considerable height, and being more free from knots, furnish deals of a closer and better grain.

Proceeding from Ha-Ha Bay towards Chicoutimi, 18 miles higher up, the river has for 8 miles a width of about 2; its banks become much less elevated, and at the end of that distance it narrows to about half a mile, and diminishes greatly in depth. Farms, well-built wooden habitations, and crops of grain, potatoes, and hay, are to be seen in every sheltered nook or ravine running down to the river. The place has been settled by squatters from Malbay and St. Paul's Bay. Groups of well-conditioned horses, and herds of fine cattle, speak well for the condition of the district. The Hudson's Bay Company have a post at Chicoutimi (60 miles from Tadoussac), consisting of a good store and out-buildings, near which is a little old chapel, built by the Jesuits in 1726, for the converted Indians of the Montagnais tribes. The mixed growth of timber here, consisting of maple, black and white birch, and spruce, indicates the strength of the soil, which appears to be a blue clayey loam. The government has laid out a town-plot on the point opposite the Hudson's Bay Company; and a new and valuable settlement will, doubtless, be formed, not only for the sawing of timber, but also for the production of food.

A few other rivers of East Canada which empty themselves into the St. Lawrence, require to be briefly noticed.

Proceeding from the Ottawa down the St. Lawrence on the northern shore, we arrive at the

St. Maurice or *Three Rivers*, which although of inconsiderable depth, is inferior in that respect only to the Ottawa and Saguenay. It drains an extent of country more than 140 miles in length, and from 20 to 100 in breadth, equivalent to 8,100 square miles. The source of the stream is a large lake called Oskelanaio, near the skirts of the N.W. ridge of mountains. Its course is generally from N. to S., inclining a little to

the eastward, and receiving many tributary rivulets and lakes during its progress.

Among the former are the Kasikan, Pismanay, Ribbon, Windigo, Vermillion, Bastonais, Rat, Mattouin, and Shawenegan. After passing the falls of the last-named river, the St. Maurice turns again to the south, and has its embouche in the St. Lawrence below the town of Three Rivers, where it forms several islands. The banks of the St. Maurice are generally high, and covered with large groups of fine majestic trees; navigation for boats is practicable for 38 leagues to La Tuque, with the exception of the portages. At Wemontichinque in 47° N. the St. Maurice is divided into three branches, of which the W. forms an extraordinary chain of lakes and navigable waters, 23 in number, varying in size, and having in many places a depth of 40 fathoms. There are about 14 small islands of different sizes in various parts of the St. Maurice, and there are a variety of falls and cascades of greater or less extent. Those of Grand Mère, about 4 miles above the Hêtres fall or cascade, are extremely beautiful and have a perpendicular descent of 30 feet. The stupendous falls of the Shawenegan, $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles lower than the Hêtres, are magnificent, the fall being 150 perpendicular feet;—the river rushing with terrific violence in two channels against the face of the cliff below, then reuniting, the vast and foaming torrent forces its way through a narrow passage not more than 30 yards wide. Before quitting the St. Maurice, it may be proper to observe, that the large river Aux Lievres, which has a course of upwards of 150 miles to the Ottawa, anastomoses with the St. Maurice, by means of a chain of lakes.

Champlain River rises in the Seigneurie of Cap de la Magdelaine; running N.E., it traverses the country to Champlain, enters Batiscan, where it turns S., and after forming the boundary between the latter seigniorie and Champlain, it falls into the St. Lawrence. This river, though of small size, is deserving of notice from an extraordinary circumstance, stated to have occurred on its banks a few years ago, which presents a similarity to the *moring bogs* in Ireland. A large tract of land containing a superficies of 207 arpents was instantaneously moved 360 yards from the edge of the water and precipitated into the river, which it dammed up to a distance of 26 arpents, and by obstructing the waters, caused them to swell to an extraordinary height: this singular event

was accompanied by an appalling sound, and a dense and suffocating vapour, as of pitch or sulphur, filled the atmosphere. My authority for this statement is Colonel Bonchette; it appears to corroborate the truth of the great Canadian earthquake of 1663.

Montmorenci River, also a tributary of the St. Lawrence, rises in the Lac des Neiges; and flows in a continued current, until it forms the celebrated cataract of Montmorenci, where its breadth is from 16 to 20 yards, and the height of the fall about 250 feet, 100 more than that of Niagara; but the volume of water is comparatively small. A slight declination in the bed of the river before it reaches the fall, gives great velocity to the stream, which is precipitated over the brink of the perpendicular rock in an extended sheet of a fleecy appearance. Immense clouds of spray rise from the bottom in curling vapours, and present an inconceivably beautiful variety of prismatic colours. The late Duke of Kent resided in a house close to the falls, which commanded a beautiful view of one of the most picturesque scenes in America.

Chaudière River rises from Lake Megantic, and waters a country of 100 miles in length, by about 30 in breadth, thus clearing nearly 3,000 square miles of territory of its redundant waters: in breadth it varies from 400 to 600 yards; and is frequently divided by islands, some of them containing many acres, and covered with timber-trees. The banks of the Chaudière are in general high and steep, thickly clothed with wood; the bed of the river is rugged, and often much contracted by rocks jutting out from the sides, which occasion violent rapids; one of the most celebrated of these is about four miles from its mouth. Narrowed by salient points extending from each side, the precipice over which the waters rush is scarcely more than 130 yards in breadth, while the height from which they descend is as many feet; huge masses of rock rising above the surface of the current at the break of the fall, divide the stream into three portions, forming partial cataracts which unite before reaching the basin which receives them below. The deep excavations the continual action of the water has worn in the rock, give a globular figure to the revolving bodies of brilliant white foam; the spray spread by the wind, produces in the sunshine a splendid variety of prismatic colours, while the dark-hued foliage on either side, pressing close on the margin of the river, forms a

striking contrast with the snowlike effulgence of the falling torrent; indeed, few falls can be compared with those of the Chaudière for picturesque beauty.

St. Francis River, S. of the Chaudière, flows through a fine country, in which the valuable territories of the *British American Land Company* is situated. The St. Francis passes that portion of the St. Lawrence called Lake St. Peter, and has a water communication to the district town of Sherbrooke, a distance of about 70 miles. The tributaries of the St. Francis—the Salmon, Eaton, Coaticook, Massawippi, Magog, &c.—water a country of great beauty; hill and dale, river and lake, forest and meadow, meet in succession the eye of the traveller. The surrounding districts, called the eastern townships, were considered by Lord Sydenham one of the finest parts of Canada. There are two remarkable lakes in this neighbourhood, namely, Matapedia and Memphramagog. The former is about 16 miles long, and 3 broad in its greatest breadth; about 21 miles distant from the St. Lawrence river in the co. of Rimouski, amidst the highlands that divide the waters running into the St. Lawrence, from those that run to the Bay of Chaleur, it is navigable for rafts of all kinds of timber, with which the banks of the noble river Matapedia are thickly covered. Memphramagog Lake, in the co. of Stanstead, stretching its southern extremity into the state of Vermont, is of a semi-circular shape, 30 miles long, and very narrow. It empties itself into the fine river St. Francis, by means of the river Magog, which runs through Lake Seawanipecus. The Memphramagog Lake is said to be navigable for ships of 500 tons burthen.

Richelieu River, also called Chambly, Sorel, St. Louis, and St. John, affords a quick and easy water communication from the United States territory (*via* Lake Champlain) into the heart of Canada. Its principal source is in the United States, and estimating its length from the S. point of Lake George to the termination at Sorel, now William Henry Town (so called after king William IV.) on the banks of the St. Lawrence, its course cannot be less than 160 miles—the estimated extent of tract watered being 30 miles, and the surface drained 4,800 square miles; only a portion of this lies within the province of British America, the distance from the boundary line to the mouth of the river being about 70 miles of the 160.

The banks of the river are generally from 8 to 12 feet high, diversified on each side by many farms and extensive settlements, in a high state of cultivation; on and near it are neat, populous, and flourishing villages, handsome churches, numerous mills of various kinds, good roads in all directions, and every characteristic of a prosperous country. From its junction with the St. Lawrence, decked vessels of 150 tons may ascend from 12 to 15 miles, after which the navigation is carried on by boats, canoes, rafts, and craft of large dimensions. The breadth of the bed at its mouth is 250 yards, which it preserves with a few exceptions (occasioned by some small and beautiful islands), up to Chambly basin, which is a nearly circular expansion of the river, about a mile and a half in diameter, embellished by several little islands, covered with fine verdure and natural wood, artistically grouped. From the basin of Chambly to the Isle du Portage the breadth is 500 yards—beyond this it spreads to double that distance, and continues to widen more or less as far as St. John's, where there is ship navigation to the towns on Lake Champlain. This lake has its name from the distinguished Frenchman who discovered it in 1609, and lies between Vermont and New York; its extreme length from Whitehall at its southern extremity to its termination, 24 miles N. of the Canada line, is 128 miles; with a varying breadth of from 1 to 16 miles; its mean width being 5; and altogether covering a surface of about 600 square miles. The outlet of the lake is the Richelieu river above described. There are about 60 islands of different sizes in the lake, the principal of which are N. Hero and Isle Lamotte. N. Hero, or Grand Island, is 24 miles long and from 2 to 4 wide. Lake Champlain has a depth sufficient for the largest vessels; half the rivers and streams which rise in Vermont fall into it, and it receives at Ticonderago the waters of Lake St. George from the S.S.W., which are said to be 100 feet higher than its own.

The other rivers being of considerably less magnitude, do not require any separate notice.

The following detail will show the divisions of Eastern Canada, and afford some idea of the numerous rivers and lakes by which this fine country is irrigated.

The district of Quebec (including Anticosti and other islands) extends along the St. Lawrence 826 miles, is in depth inland 360, and contains an area of 127,949 square miles.

Montreal (including the adjacent islands) extends 110 miles along the St. Lawrence, 310 inland, and has an area of 51,802 square miles. Three Rivers (including St. Francis and the islands) extends 52 miles along the St. Lawrence, 320 inland, and has an area of 15,823 square miles. Gaspé peninsula (including islands) extends 80 miles along the St. Lawrence, 200 inland, and has an area of 7,289 square miles. Total superficies in square miles, 205,863.

QUEBEC DISTRICT.—*Rivers. N. of St. Lawrence:* Ste. Anne, Jacques Cartier, Batisseau, St. Charles, Montmorenci, Gouffre, Mal Bay, Black River, Saguenay, Belsianite, St. John, Ste. Anne, L., Portneuf. *S. of St. Lawrence:* Chaudière (part of), Etchemin, Du Sud, Du Loup, Greenriver, Rimonski, Trois Pistoles, Mitis, Tartigo, Matane, Madiawaska, St. Francis (part of), St. John (part of).—*Lakes. N. of St. Lawrence:* St. John, Commissioner's, Quaquagamack, Wayagamack, Bouchette, Kajoulwang, Ontaretri, St. Charles, Chawgis, Assuapmoussin, Shecoubish. *S. of St. Lawrence:* Temisconata, Matapediac, Mitis, Abawisquash, Long lake, Pitt, Trout, William, St. Francis, McTavish, Macanamack.

MONTREAL DISTRICT.—*Rivers N. of St. Lawrence:* Gatineau, Lièvres, Petite Nation, Rivière Blanche, Rivière Du Nord, Mascouche, Achigan, L'Assomption, Lachenaye, Berthier, Chaloupe, Du Chêne. *S. of St. Lawrence:* Richelieu, Sorel, Yamaska and branches, Pike, Montreal, L. Chateaugay and branches, Lacolle, Magog, Coaticook, Missiskoui.—*Lakes. N. of St. Lawrence:* White Fish, Sables, Killarney, Temiscaming, Lièvres, La Roque, Rochéblave, Pothier, Nimicahinaque, Papineau, Maskinongé. *S. of St. Lawrence:* Memphramagog, Toncfobi, Missiskoui Bay, Seawaniepus (part of), Yamaska Bay, St. Louis, Two Mountains, St. Francis, Chaudière, Chats, Allumets.

THREE RIVERS DISTRICT.—*N. of St. Lawrence:* St. Maurice and branches, Batisseau, (part of), Champlain, Du Loup G. and L. Maskinonge, Machiches. *S. of St. Lawrence:* St. Francis and branches, Nicolet and do. Beccanour, Gentilly, Yamaska (part of).—*Lakes. N. of St. Lawrence:* O'Cananshing, Matawin, Goldfinch, Shasawataiaata, Montalageose, Oskelamaio, Crossways, Perchaudes, Blackbeaver, Bewildered. *S. of St. Lawrence:* Nicolet, St. Francis, (part of), Megantie, St. Paul, Ontardes, Blacklake, Connecticut Weedon, Seawaniepus (part of), St. Peter.

The rural districts N. of the St. Lawrence, between Montreal and Quebec, are principally occupied by the French Canadian Seigniories; and from the Isle Jesus to Three Rivers, the banks of the St. Lawrence present an uninterrupted succession of flourishing settlements. The Isle Jesus, parallel to that of Montreal, 21 miles long by 6 broad, is level, fertile, and highly cultivated. The Montreal district on the north side of the St. Lawrence, comprises the counties of Montreal, Berthier, Lachenaye, L'Assomption, Terrebonne, Two Mountains, Vandreuil, and Ottawa, and contains a comparatively dense population. The Ottawa district, which extends more than 300 miles along the north bank of that great river, is very thinly peopled, as will be seen by the statistics of the chapter on Population.

The district of Three Rivers extends from the mouth of the River St. Anne to the upper part of Lake St. Peter, which is 25 miles long by from 5 to 10 broad. The town of Three Rivers was founded in 1618, and stands at the mouth of the St. Maurice, where it is divided by islands into three branches. There is a good wharf, where ships of large burthen may lie close to the shore. There are now about 5,000 inhabitants in the town, which derives much advantage from the excellent iron establishments on the St. Maurice.

The counties belonging to the Montreal district *south* of the St. Lawrence, north of the states of New York and Vermont, and west of the St. Francis, are those of Beauharnois, La Prairie, Acadie, Verchères, Chambly, Rouville, Richelieu, St. Hyacinthe, Shefford, Missisqui, and Stanstead. This district, where it borders on the St. Lawrence, is nearly flat, but gently undulates to the southward, and forms detached hills called Mounts Rouville, Chambly, Johnson, and Boucherville, &c.

The soil of this rich plain is exceedingly productive, and has a numerous population scattered in farms and villages, especially along the St. Lawrence. The scenery is described as extremely picturesque, being covered with "fruitful fields, luxuriant meadows, and smiling villages variegated by towering peaks." La Prairie, opposite to Montreal, is a handsome town, and in the high road of communication between Montreal and the United States. Chambly and St. John's are on the same route, and rapidly rising in importance. The counties within the district of "Three Rivers," on the *south*

side of the St. Lawrence, are Yamaska, Nicolet, Drummond, and Sherbrooke. The country rises to the eastward, and is well irrigated by the St. Francis and several fine rivers. The land along the St. Lawrence from 8 to 10 miles inland, was bestowed in grants, and formed into seigniories, while the fine undulating tracts in the rear, reaching to the frontiers of the United States, were neglected.

At the close of the last war the government began to form townships in this region, of which there are now about an hundred. Colonel Herriot laid out Drummond Ville with some military, discharged from the army on the establishment of peace; and private settlers were attracted from the adjacent United States territories by the fertility of the soil, and other advantages. Subsequently the *British American Land Company* purchased from Government a block of land containing 596,000 acres, and other tracts from private individuals, making altogether 700,000 acres, at a cost of nearly £200,000. Of this money £60,000 has been returned to them to be expended in improvements; and they have formed a harbour at Port St. Francis on Lake St. Peter, improved the road to Sherbrooke, and rendered the country very eligible for settlers, as *improved* farms, with buildings complete, may now be purchased in any part of the eastern townships at from £150 to £300 for a lot of 300 acres.

Shefford, watered by the lower branches of the Yamaska river, is, in some places, hilly and rocky. Stanstead is diversified by hill and dale, and has, in its centre, the pleasing lake called Memphramagog. Stanstead town on the east side of the lake, within two miles of the American frontier, is large and well built. A railroad is in course of formation from Montreal through Chambly, Richelieu, St. Hyacinthe, Shefford, Sherbrooke, and Stanstead counties, to the American state of New Hampshire, from whence it is projected to continue the line to the seaports of Boston, and Portland in the United States.

The district of St. Francis is divided into 29 townships; has a broken and varied surface; hills clothed with fine timber; and much valuable and well-watered land.

The Quebec district on the S. side of the St. Lawrence contains the counties of Beauce, Bellechasse, Megantic, Lotbinière, Nicolet, Kamouraska, and Rimouski. The aspect of this district is hilly; the land stretching in

irregular ridges, intersected by extensive valleys; and from 15 to 20 miles inland, a more elevated tabular surface is formed with a gradual slope to the river St. John. The land facing the St. Lawrence was granted by the French government in seigniories, but in the rear of these, townships have been laid out for English settlers who may obtain farms in fee-simple. Kamouraska is the fashionable watering-place of the Canadians, and the fine scenery, combined with sea air, render the place very attractive. On proceeding further towards the sea the country is less populous; but the settlements of Kent and Strathearn, adjoining Lake Temisconata, formed by colonel Fraser, are rising in importance.

Along Gaspé peninsula, the land adjoining the coast has been laid out, and double ranges are now forming inland. The country will soon be cultivated extensively, and will probably become very prosperous from its valuable fisheries and mines.

The vast territory embraced in the division of Upper or Western Canada, as regards the *inhabited* parts, is in general, a level, champaign country; for, from the division line on Lake St. Francis to Sandwich, a distance of nearly 600 miles westerly, nothing like a mountain occurs, although the greater part of the country gently undulates in pleasing hills, fine slopes, and fertile vallies; but a ridge of rocky country runs in a north-east and south-west direction through the Newcastle and Midland districts, towards the Ottawa or Grand River, at the distance of from 50 to 100 miles from the north shore of Lake Ontario and the course of the River St. Lawrence. To the N. of this ridge is a wide and rich valley of great extent, which intervenes between it and a rocky and mountainous country, of still higher elevation.

Farther to the north, beyond the French river which falls into Lake Huron, are lofty mountains, some of them of great, but unknown height.

The country on the N. and W side of Lake Ontario, and of Lake Erie, which is still further west, continues flat as far as Lake Huron, with occasional elevations of easy ascent. Of this tract of country only a comparatively small portion is under cultivation, the remainder being in its primitive state of forests, lakes, and rivers; the latter for the most part falling into the great lakes, or into large rivers, which again empty themselves into that great artery of the,

country, the St. Lawrence. The settlements are chiefly confined to the shores, and are seldom far distant from the borders of the great lakes and rivers. In order to convey a clear idea of the physical aspect of the province, it may be expedient to proceed at once to a description of its vast inland seas.

The lakes of West Canada are almost incalculable. The following table shews the dimension of a few of the best known:—

Names.	Length	Breadth.	Circumference.	Aver. depth.	Elevat. above the Sea.
	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Feet.	Feet.
Superior . . .	360	140	1500	1000	627
Huron . . .	250	190	1000	860	591
Michigan . . .	260	55	800	780	
Erie	280	63	700	250	565
Ontario . . .	180	60	500	500	234
Simcoe . . .	40	30	120	125	700
St. Clair . . .	35	30	100	20	
George . . .	25		58		
Rice Lake . .	24	2 to 5	58		600

Lake Superior, called also Keeteheegahmi and Missisawgaigon, the largest and most elevated of those singular seas, which, in Western Canada, seem to fill the place that great mountains occupy in other countries, and to affect the climate in a somewhat similar manner, is situate between the meridians of $92^{\circ} 19'$ and $84^{\circ} 18'$ W. long., and the parallels of $49^{\circ} 1'$ and $46^{\circ} 26'$ N. lat. It is in form, an irregular oblong basin, about 1,500 geographical miles in circumference, in length from E. to W. the imaginary line which, passing through its centre, divides the territory of Great Britain from that of the United States, is 360 miles; its extreme breadth (opposite Peak Island) is 140 geographical miles, with a depth, where it admits of measurement, of from 80 to 150 fathoms, but without soundings in its centre; the waters are always extremely cold, clear, and devoid of tides, or any other kind of periodical rise and fall. During heavy gales of wind, the waters of this and the other great lakes, between which a subterranean communication is supposed to exist, rise so high, that it was at first doubted whether the smaller-class steam-boats could live in them, and the ground swell, owing to the comparative shallowness, or little specific gravity of the fresh water, is so trying as to produce sea-sickness even in old sailors. [See Geology.]

This monarch of lakes is situated to the S. of, and near the continuous chain of high

lands, which, stretching from the rocky mountains to Lake Superior in broad diluvial plains and undulations, divides the waters flowing into the Mexican Gulf from those which find their exit in Hudson's Bay; and proceeding thence in an easterly direction to the coast of Labrador, constitutes the north dividing range of the valley of St. Lawrence.

The surface of Lake Superior is 627 feet *above*—and the bottom of its basin (so far as it has been sounded) upwards of 500 feet *below* the level of the Atlantic ocean; it receives 220 tributary rivers and rivulets, but owing to the immense evaporation continually taking place from Lake Superior, the volume of water which it discharges through its only outlet (the Falls of St. Mary) into Lake Huron, is far less in quantity than that which it has itself received.

The extent of the American shore along Lake Superior from the mouth of the Ontonagon is 500 miles; that of the Canadian coast is estimated at 1200 miles. Some of the rivers on the S. coast are 153 miles long; the principal of these, namely, the Ontonagon, or Coppermine, Montreal, Mauvaise, Boisbrulé, and St. Louis, communicate with the Mississippi.

Numerous islands exist in various parts of the lake, some of which are of considerable size; Isle Royale is 45 miles long by 7 or 8 broad; Caribou is about 6 miles in circumference, and the Islands of the Twelve Apostles are 23 in number, with perpendicular cliffs of sandstone on the N. and S.E., 60 feet in height. At Les Portailles and Grand Island there are perpendicular cliffs broken into the most beautiful and picturesque arches, (under some of which a boat can pass,) porticoes, columns, and caverns of large dimensions.

The shores of Lake Superior (whose direction is E. and W.) are in several places rocky, and considerably elevated, with occasional large tracts and bays of sand. From Point Iroquois to the "Pictured Rocks," it is generally sandy, from thence to the foot of the Fond du Lac, rocky. The great promontory or peninsula of Kewawanonau, which divides it into two equal sections, is very high at its central part, consisting of steep conical granite hills, rising 1,000 feet above the lake. The country around Lake Superior, whether on the American or on the British territory, is but imperfectly known; there is a great extent of hill and dale, and in some places ranges of what in West

Canada may be termed mountains, 1,500 feet above the level of the lake, and consequently 2,127 feet above the level of the ocean. The Porenpine hills, 200 feet high, approach the lake on the S. shore.

At Gros-Cap (where Lake Superior is connected by the river St. Mary, with Lake Huron) the prospect is not only beautiful but magnificent; the spectator standing beneath the shattered crags 300 feet high, has before him an apparently immeasurable flood, which, if it burst its barriers, would overwhelm a continent: in front is a low island, on the S. Point Iroquois declines from a high tabular hill, and on the N.W. a picturesque and elevated country is dimly seen in the distance.

The line of rocky hills which constitutes the N. shore of Lake Superior consists of rocks and crags, piled to the height of 150 or 200 feet at the N. end, and from about 400 to 450 feet at the S. end, where they dip into the lake from an elevation of 300 feet in detached fragments, lowering successively on each other. Along the E. shore of the lake from Gros-Cap to the river Michipicoton (125 miles) are several promontories, bays, and rivers; among these are Batchewine and Huggewong bays, off the mouth of which latter is the island termed Montreal or Hoggnart. The W. end of Lake Superior, termed Fond du Lac, is a slowly contracting *cul de sac* commencing in long. 91°, at the promontory opposite the isles of the Twelve Apostles, 80 miles in length, with a breadth of 8 to 10 miles at the end.

There are 139 rivers and creeks on the S. shore, but fewer in the eastern than in the western division. One of these, the St. Lewis, is 150 yards broad at its mouth, expanding immediately into a sheet of water 5 or 6 miles wide, and extending inland 23 miles, with a varying breadth. Some of the mountains near the lake rise to the height of 1,400 feet. Thunder mountain, for instance, which is of considerable breadth, several miles long, the western half being almost tabular, with the eastern irregular and hummocky. In general the hills have flat pine-clad summits. The *pictured* rocks (so called from their appearance), situate on the S. side of the lake towards the E. end, form a perpendicular wall 300 feet high, extending about 12 miles, with numerous projections and indentations in every variety of form, and vast caverns, in which the entering waves make a jarring and tremendous sound. Mr. Schoolcraft describes

them as "surprising groups of overhanging precipices, towering walls, caverns, waterfalls, and prostrate ruins, which are mingled in the most wonderful disorder, and burst upon the view in ever-varying and pleasing succession." Among the more remarkable objects are the Cascade La Portaille and the Doric Arch; the cascade consists of a considerable stream, precipitated from a height of 70 feet by a single leap into the lake, and projected to such a distance that a boat may pass beneath the fall and the rock untouched by the waters.

The Doric Arch has a most singular effect, having all the appearance of a work of art; it consists of an isolated mass of sandstone, with four pillars supporting an immense entablature of stone covered with soil, from which springs a beautiful grove of pine and spruce trees of considerable height.

The lake is subject to storms, sudden transitions of temperature, and dense fogs and mists. The mean heat for June is 66°, and for July 64°, and of the lake 61°; the winter is long and severe. The principal forest trees are white and yellow pine, oak, hemlock, spruce, birch, poplar, with a mixture of elm, maple, and ash, upon the banks of some of the rivers.

The waters of Lake Superior are very transparent, and their lower strata appear never to gain a warm temperature, for the water in a bottle sunk to the depth of 100 feet in July, and there filled, is, when brought to the surface, cold as ice. They abound nevertheless with trout (weighing from 12 to 50 pounds), sturgeon, and white fish as large in proportion, together with pike, pickerel, carp, bass, herring, and numerous other species.

The St. Mary's river, or strait, which connects Lake Superior with Lake Huron, is about 60 miles long.

The falls or rapids of St. Mary, by which travellers usually enter Lake Superior, are in length about three quarters of a mile by half a mile in breadth, the river being here narrowed by a broad tongue of land, protruding from the N. shore, and affording a site for the store-houses of the Hudson's Bay Company. The rapids are 15 miles from Lake Superior. in 46° 31' N. lat., and have a descent of 22 feet 10 inches in the narrow limit of 900 yards. The broken foaming billows are hurried with velocity over a slope of ledges and huge boulder stones, through a thickly wooded country, whose low level has permitted the formation on each side of

a number of islets, divided by channels, which are narrow on the left, but much wider on the right bank. The height of the latter varies from 10 to 50 feet, and is composed of light alluvial earth; this acclivity is more distant on the Canadian than on the American shore. The St. Mary river extends above the rapids about 15 miles, through a low well-wooded country, and its bed is from one mile to one and a half wide. The current ceases to affect boats 2 miles above the rapids. Immediately below the rapids, the St. Mary fall widens to upwards of a mile.

Lake Huron, the third from the Atlantic ocean of the great chain of lakes which occupy the four *plateaux* of the upper part of the valley of the St. Lawrence, is of an irregular shape. It has a circumference at the south part exceeding 720 lineal miles, and an area of 11,000 square miles. The northern part is divided by the Manitoulin islands into two parts; the eastern, called Georgian Bay, is 120 miles long by 20 broad, and has an area of 6,000 square miles; and the western, called the "North Channel," has an area of 1,700 square miles. The total superficies of the lake amounts to about 21,700 square miles. Lake Huron is nearly 594 feet above the ocean level, and has a depth of 860 feet.

Lake Michigan, is in fact, a part of the same body of water, separated only by the strait of Michilimackinac, but as it is entirely possessed by the United States, it does not come within my notice. I may, however, observe, that it is 260 miles long, by 55 broad, and 800 miles in circumference, covering an area of 16,200 square miles, or 10,368,000 acres, and navigable for ships of the largest burthen. Green Bay extends from the N. end of the lake 90 miles in a S.W. direction, with a width of from 15 to 20 miles. Across its entrance is a chain of islands, called the Grand Traverse, the channels between which admit vessels of 200 tons burthen, and sloops of equal burthen can ascend to the head of this extensive bay. From the bottom of Green Bay, boats can ascend the Ontonagon or Fox River, to within two miles of the Oniscousin, to the head of which a portage has been made, and a descent is practicable from thence to the Mississippi. The tributaries of Michigan are extremely numerous, some of them full flowing rivers, but, so far as we know, none are of any great length. Along the north shores of Lake Huron

are the Manitoulin, or Sacred Isles, many of which are from 25 to 30 miles long by 10 and 15 broad.

Drummond Island (one of the Manitoulin;) is 24 miles long by from 2 to 12 broad, and at the west end approaches the main land of the United States, where it forms the strait of the True Detour, the principal commercial route to Lake Superior; the strait is scarcely a mile wide, and bounded by two promontories; the coast of the United States is here flat and woody, with morasses,—that of the island is irregular, and covered with large masses of rock. In the higher and middle parts of Drummond Isle, the elevation is from 200 to 250 feet, inclining on either side of the water, often presenting low white precipices, in broken lines, on the summit or sides of the slopes; the south coast of the island is broken into small but deep bays, with shoal points; those on the west contain many islets,—one of which, according to Dr. Bigsby, has an immense deposit of iron pyrites: the north coast is distinguished by the magnitude of its bays, and the groups of islands which cover the contiguous waters. This coast is terminated on the east, in the strait called False Detour, by a calcareous precipice of considerable beauty, 500 yards long, and 250 feet high, which forms at the top a terrace of rock, and below is separated from the lake by a narrow and high beach.

The False Detour, which separates Drummond Island from the little Manitoulin, or Cockburn Island, is from 8 to 10 miles long, and from 3 to 6 miles wide, with a mid depth of seldom less than 40 fathoms; the opening from the south is spacious and bold, it has three fine capes on the west, and one on the east. At the north outlet, the shores are very much rounded, with precipices to the west, and woody steeps to the east: in front, is that part of Lake Huron termed the North Channel, studded with a few islets in pairs, and bounded in the distance by the mis-shapen hills of the northern main; on the north-west the heights of St. Joseph form a blue waving line, and on the north-east, the looming of the isles at the foot of La Cloche is just visible.

Little Manitoulin has a diameter of seven or eight miles, and an aspect somewhat similar to, though more elevated than that of Drummond Isle: the shores have successive banks or stairs formed by the debris of the lake, with here and there terraces of

limestone, *in situ*;—inland, the surface has a rugged ascent, with protruding strata in primitive masses, intersected by short ledges, which often crown the greatest heights, and form a table land of small extent, but well wooded.

Between the Little and Grand Manitoulin is the third Detour, eight miles long by four broad, which has high shores, and is clear at both outlets.

The Grand Manitoulin, or "Sacred" Isle, is 80 miles long by 20 broad, with an area of 1,600 square miles, and deeply indented by bays, which nearly divide the island; its general features are similar to those of the two preceding named islands, only it is higher, abounds more in precipices, and is rugged throughout. At the W., its features are more majestic than those of any other part of Lake Huron. At the north end of the third Detour, its shores are lined with ranges of shingle, backed by a wooded ascent: towards the centre of this strait, ledges and low precipices begin to appear along the beach, increasing to the height of 250 feet, crowned with cedars and pines: these ledges either rise perpendicularly, or are formed by enormous piles of displaced masses, from 7 to 10 yards in diameter, sloping at a high angle, sometimes advancing into the waters of the lake, and affording a hazardous passage over their slippery sides, under arches and through winding passages. Near the south-east angle of the Detour, a bluff precipice, 40 feet high, protrudes into the water, skirted by very large cubic masses of rock. From these natural precipices arise clumps of beautiful trees, and knolls of flowering shrubs, shadowed in the back ground by the dense gloom of impenetrable forests.

The interior of the island appears to be well irrigated with streams and lakes. One lake, 10 miles long, is in the form of an hour-glass, 7 miles wide at the ends, and only 1 in the centre, with an area of 55 square miles. The margin of the lake is fringed with trees to the water's edge, except on the S.W. side, where the ledges rise 20 to 40 feet. This lake is 155 feet above the level of the waters of Lake Huron. Only one stream flows into it, while three large brooks run from it. Where the water is derived from, Mr. Murray (in his recent geological survey) was unable to discover. Manitoulin island is chiefly composed of limestone; which formation not unfrequently has subterranean passages; the different lakes in

the island therefore possibly have a communication.

The insulated rocks called the Flower Pots are six miles S.S.E. of the fourth Manitoulin, one of them has an elevation of 47 feet, and consists of large tabular masses placed *horizontally* one upon the other, narrow below, but increasing in breadth as they ascend—the whole standing on a floor of rock projecting into the lake from the lofty island which bears their name. Cabot's Head is a singular looking head-land, in Michipoceton, or Georgian Bay, consisting of indented limestone bluffs, rising to the height of 300 feet, and skirted by numerous reefs and islets, and presenting on the S. W. a continued range of calcareous precipices.

From the French River (which connects Lake Nipissing with Lake Huron) westwards to the islands of La Cloche, about 50 miles distant, the lake near the shore is studded with innumerable islands; some near the main, barren, and chiefly composed of gneiss, are like heaps of ruins; others farther out in the lake, loftier, and girded with a belt of flat ground, consist of shelly limestone, and are richly wooded. Further west the islands of La Cloche, which derive their name from the belief that some of the islands are composed of dark rocks, which, when struck, sound like a bell, form a charming contrast to the bleak hills on the main, which rise 1000 feet above the level of the lake;—the islands, with their dark green forests diversified by grassy vales and clumps of trees, appear like an English park. Groups of islands occupy the lake from La Cloche to Missalaga River, 60 miles distant; some near the main are low and barren; others, elevated and woody; beyond the Missalaga is a low rocky shore. To the westward of Spanish River, which was discovered by captain Bayfield, in 1820, the coast is for the most part low, rugged, and has several safe and commodious harbours among its numerous islands and inlets. To the E. of the Spanish River the scenery is improved by the gradual approach of a high range of picturesque hills, which extend to the shores of the lake, about four miles W. of the Hudson's Bay Company's post at La Cloche. Their highest elevation is 482 feet above the lake. To the E. of the Manitoulin islands, the La Cloche hills recede to the northward, and the coast is generally low and destitute of vegetation.

Mr. Alexander Murray, assistant provincial geologist, in his survey of Lake Huron

(11th January, 1818), describes the north shore of the lake as poor, rocky, in some parts destitute of vegetation; in others thickly clad with trees of a stunted growth. But after passing these marginal forests of fir, spruce, pine, beech, and poplar, the interior in many places presents a very different character, especially in the valleys of the different streams, where there are frequently to be seen extensive valleys of rich and deep soil, producing maple, oak, elm, birch, and basswood, besides occasional groves of red and white pine of large size. Various places of this description have been cleared and cultivated by the Indians, and as at Spanish river, notwithstanding the rude state of aboriginal culture, the crops of maize and potatoes are nearly equal, both in quantity and quality, to those usually seen under the more enlightened system of tillage in West Canada. Mr. Murray remarks, that the Thessalon, Mississagui, Serpent, and Spanish rivers, have the most favourable districts for cultivation.

The Thessalon and Mississagui rise far in the interior, where the country is represented to be spotted with numerous small lakes, run in a south-east direction, and fall into Lake Huron, within 25 miles of each other. The Serpent and Spanish rivers rise to the northward, flow westward for the lower part of their course, and disembody into Lake Huron, within 15 miles of each other.

The north-west arm of Lake Huron, which communicates with Lake Superior, is of an oblong shape, the two longer sides at their western extremities converging towards the north; it contains about 400 square miles, and is crowded with islands of all sizes; the principal, St. Joseph, is 65 miles in circumference, through it runs an undulating ridge, called the Highlands of St. Joseph, 500 feet high: the N.W. point of St. Joseph is in long. 81° , and lat. $46^{\circ} 18'$. Pelletan's Channel, which divides St. Joseph from the main, is remarkable for its fine scenery. The island (St. Joseph) belongs to the English, and its neighbour, Drummond Isle, to the United States, and on each are small military detachments belonging to their respective governments. Portlock Harbour, a British military position, 1100 miles from Quebec, is an extensive haven, interspersed with rocky islets, and girt by woody hills starting forth in a series of verdant or rocky capes. Muddy Lake, bounding the S.W. side of St. Joseph's

Isle, is a noble sheet of water 17 miles long, and varying from 2 to 7 in breadth; its shores are deep embayments, ending in grassy marshes, especially on the S.E. side.

Michilimakinac strait, the south-west arm of Lake Huron, leading into Lake Michigan, is 11 miles wide, and by its side is the peninsula called False Presquisle. The view into Lake Michigan, from Michilimakinac Isle, which lies in the strait of that name, midway from either main, is remarkably pleasing; the land, which at first closes on the water, suddenly expands into a spacious sound, with curving shores and woody capes, with clusters of islands in the distance. The pretty hamlet of St. Ignace, the high white cliffs of Michilimakinac contrasting with the dark foliage around, and the blue light streaming through the sound from the vast lake beyond, offer a rich treat to the lovers of natural scenery. There is nothing particularly worthy of remark down the south-east shore, as far as Thunder Bay and Middle Islands, which are flat, calcareous, and well covered with timber of various kinds. Respecting the Gulf of Saguiné the English know little: from Pont aux Barques to the River St. Clair, is a straight line of beach, intermixed here and there with stiff clay, and, about midway, a large block of white limestone rises from the waters of the lake.

On the elevated south-east shore of the lake, in the London district, between $43^{\circ} 10'$ and $43^{\circ} 53'$ of north latitude, about 40 miles at its nearest point from the head of Lake Ontario, and 30 miles from the north border of Lake Erie, is situate the fine tract termed the Huron territory, which belongs to the Canada company. It is of a triangular shape, the base is 60 miles in length, it rests on Lake Huron, and comprises an area of nearly 1,100,000 acres. Near to the confluence of the river Maitland with the lake an excellent harbour is formed, capable of sheltering vessels of 200 tons burthen, where the Canada Company have laid out the neat and flourishing town of Goderich;—the country around is fast improving under their judicious management. The surface of the Huron territory is generally level, and frequently presents rich natural meadows. The rivers Maitland, Aux Sables, a large branch of the Thames, and other rivers and streams, water this fine district.

Georgian Bay, a vast arm of Lake Huron on the north-east side, is studded with fine harbours.

The principal British naval station in

Lake Huron is Penetanguishine (lat. $44^{\circ} 57'$, long. $79^{\circ} 35'$), in the south-east bight of Georgian Bay, within Gloucester harbour; it is sheltered by hills of sand and rolled blocks.

The lake we are now treating of, may be considered the centre of the great chain of waters round it, with all of which it has a direct communication. It communicates with Lake Superior by St. Mary's River; with Michigan (and through it with the Illinois river) by the Strait of Michilimackinac; with Lake Erie by the river and Lake of St. Clair; and with Lake Ontario by the Severn river,—Lake Simcoe, a chain of comparatively small lakes, and the Trent river. It has also two known communications with the Ottawa—one through Lake Simcoe, and a chain of lakes to the source of the Madawasca, which falls into the Lake des Chats—the other, up French river, through Lake Nipissing, and down a rapid river to the Ottawa, near Mataouin.

The principal rivers emptying themselves into Lake Huron are, the Thessalon, Mississagua, French, Severn, St. Clair, Maitland, and Saguina. The two former, situate in the north-east corner of the lake, are small. French River, which connects Lake Huron with Lake Nipissing, is 75 miles in length, and resembles a multitude of rivers rather than a single stream, flowing with frequent inosculations, among lengthened ridges of rock: its shores seldom present continuous lines, but are excavated with deep and narrow bays, obscured by high walls, masses of rock, and groves of dwarf pines. Its breadth varies; sometimes it extends more than one league, and is occupied by islands of every imaginable shape. Dr. Bigsby says, few American prospects exceed in singularity and grandeur those which are here afforded, by groups of long and lofty islets extending in giant rays from a centre in some dark bay,—the clear water reflecting their rugged outlines and wild foliage, amid the solemn stillness pervading these solitudes.

Two cataracts occur in French River,—by one, it leaves Lake Nipissing; the other, called the Récollet, is 20 miles below, where the black crags in the midst of the foaming waters, skirted by pine trees, impart strange beauty to the scene.

There are also several rapids; near one, the Buisson, thirteen wooden crosses commemorate an equal number of fatal accidents which occurred in crossing the foam-

ing torrent; the average velocity of which, along the whole course of the river, is about two miles per hour.

The Saguina River flows through a fine and level country, and has a breadth of 180 yards for 24 miles, when it divides into three small and very circuitous branches, one of which is called Flint River. The Saguina is 120 miles from Detroit, through the woods, and about 220 by water.

The Severn River, connecting Lakes Simcoe and Huron, is about 30 miles in length; and at its mouth, near Penetanguishine, it is one mile and a quarter in breadth: it has two falls, and a descent of 80 feet from Lake Simcoe.

The St. Clair, according to Dr. Bigsby, is the only river of discharge for Lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron, which cover a surface of $38\frac{1}{2}$ million of acres, and are fed by numerous large rivers. I differ from this able observer, and am of opinion that the Missouri and Mississippi receive some of the waters of Superior and Michigan. It is 300 yards broad at its commencement, and flows for 26 miles, previous to its entrance into Lake St. Clair, through a luxuriant alluvial country, in a straight course, with a smooth and equable current of 2 miles an hour. At its head, there is a rapid, which flows for three quarters of a mile, at the rate of 5 miles per hour; and it enters Lake St. Clair by a multitude of shallow changeable mouths, which are, nevertheless, navigable for schooners.

Lake St. Clair is scarcely more than an intermediate link between Huron lake and the noble basin of Erie, being connected with the latter by the Detroit River; it is of an irregular oval shape, about 30 miles in diameter, with a depth of water sufficient for steam-boats and schooners. The shores are low and level, and a group of flat islands formed by the constant alluvial accumulations carried from Lake Huron by the St. Clair River, contracts its surface to the northward. This lake receives two large rivers; 1st, the Thames River (formerly *Rivière à la Tranche*), which rises north of the township of Blandford, has a serpentine course of 150 miles, and discharges itself into Lake St. Clair. It is navigable for large vessels to Chatham (15 miles from its embouchure), and for boats nearly to its source; the bar at its entrance is, however, some obstacle to its free navigation. The Thames winds through a level and highly fertile country, the banks presenting many

fine plains and natural meadows. The soil is principally a sandy earth, intermixed with large quantities of loam, and sometimes marl, under which is a substratum of clay; and the river flats are exceedingly rich, from the alluvial deposits left by the overflowing of the banks. The oak, maple, pine, beech, and walnut, growing in the vicinity, are of superior quality.

London is situate on the banks of the main branch of the Thames, about 90 miles from its mouth, and in a tolerably central position with regard to the surrounding lakes. Chatham, as already observed, is 15 miles from its mouth.

The Big Bear River, or "Creek," rises near the limits of the Huron tract, and after running a course of about 100 miles generally parallel to the Thames (in one place approaching it within 5 miles), falls into Lake St. Clair at the mouth of one of its north-east channels.

The Detroit River, or rather Strait, is broad, deep, and 29 miles long; it connects Lake St. Clair with Lake Erie,—flowing, after a westerly bend, nearly due S. from the former; the greater part of its course is intersected by long narrow islands, of which the largest (Gros Isle, 8 miles long,) is within the American boundary; and the next in size (Turkey Island, 5 miles long,) is within the British territory. Isle au Bois Blanc, 1½ mile long, belonging to Upper or Western Canada, is of great importance from its situation, as it divides the channel between Gros Isle and the E. bank of the river (leaving the deepest channel on the E.), and commands the entrance of the Detroit, which is navigable for vessels of the larger size employed upon the lakes; it moreover affords, at the British settlement of Amherstburgh, an excellent harbour. Sandwich, another delightful British town, is situate 14 miles from Amherstburgh. The country around is extremely picturesque; the banks high and richly cultivated, the eye everywhere resting on fertile fields, well stocked gardens, neat farm-houses and orchards, and extensive barns. The most important American town, on the opposite bank, is Detroit, which is a strong military station. During winter, the river is completely frozen over.

We now arrive at that splendid sheet of water called—

Lake Erie, which receives the Detroit river, about 30 miles from its north-west extremity. This magnificent lake, unlike Huron or Superior (which lie generally

north and south), runs nearly east and west, between $11^{\circ} 20'$, and $12^{\circ} 50'$, north latitude, $78^{\circ} 35'$, and $83^{\circ} 10'$, west longitude, being 280 miles long, and $63\frac{1}{2}$ miles broad at its centre, 700 miles in circumference, with an area of about 12,000 square miles. Its extreme depth varies from 10 to 15 fathoms, with a rocky bottom, unlike Lake Superior and Huron, which have a stiff clayey bottom mixed with shells; its average depth is from 15 to 18 fathoms; hence when the wind blows strong, the lake becomes exceedingly rough and boisterous, and a very high and dangerous surf breaks upon its shores, which often resemble the sea beach, being strewn with dead fish and shells, and frequented by various species of aquatic birds.

The surface of Erie is 331 feet above that of Lake Ontario, with which it is connected by the Welland canal, and 565 feet above the tide water at Albany, with which it is connected by the great Erie canal.

The southern shore of the lake (which is exclusively within the territory of the United States, as the north is within that of Great Britain), is generally low, from the American town of Buffalo at its eastern extremity, to Detroit at its western, except near the portage of Chataigne, where, for a short distance, it is rocky and bold, and between Cleveland and the Reneshowa river, where the cliffs rise 20 yards perpendicularly above the water, and continue of the same elevation to the River Huron. Erie, an American town of some extent, with a strong battery, dock-yard, &c., lies to the S.E. of the lake. About 20 miles from its mouth, is a tract called the Sugar-loaf country, from its numerous conical hills, which average from 20 to 30 feet in height, are composed of sand and clay, and extend several miles. The beach at this part of the lake is covered with huge black rocks, against which the waves beat with incessant roar, and during spring and autumn thick mists often obscure the sky for days together.

To return to British territory, the north shore of Lake Erie is bolder and more elevated than the opposite coast, and is of an irregular form, by reason of several capes. The banks of the lake sometimes rise to the height of 100 perpendicular feet and consist of clay and sand, broken and excavated in a thousand different ways by the action of the waves; in some places large bodies of clay project 20 or 30 feet beyond the main bank, and lofty trees, from the roots of which the soil has been swept

away, appear supported by a few fibres. During tempests the waters suddenly rise, and beat with great violence against these sand cliffs, covering the beach, and overwhelming boats, &c. The first cape is Point Pelé, or South Foreland, on the north-west shore (near Lake St. Clair), the southernmost point of Canada, and indeed of the British dominions in North America. The next prominence is Point aux Pins (Landguard) whence there is a short westerly route to Chatham, on the Thames. Further east is Long Point, or the North Foreland (now an island), stretching eastward into the lake for about 20 miles, which forms a bay on its north-east shore. The fine river Ouse waters a thickly settled country, and falls into Lake Erie, after a course of 100 miles, where the Welland canal (see canals) which joins Erie and Ontario commences. The northern, or British shore, along the counties of Middlesex, is thickly settled.

Compared with the other great lakes, Erie, as before observed, is shallow, and is rendered rather dangerous by the numerous rocks which, for many miles together, project from the north shore, and the little shelter afforded from storms.

A constant current sets down Lake Erie when N.W. and S.W. winds prevail. The principal harbours on the south (American) shore, are Buffalo and Dunkirk (New York); Erie (Pennsylvania); Sandusky (Ohio); besides the harbour at Put-in-Bay Island.

The promontories on the north (British) side, form several good harbours and anchorage during the heavy gales which blow on this lake. Some years ago the violence of a tempest made a breach through Long Point, (North Foreland) near the mainland, converted the peninsula into an island, and actually formed a canal almost at the very spot where it had been proposed to cut one, at an estimated expense of £12,000, leaving nothing else necessary to secure a safe channel for vessels, and a good harbour on both sides, than the construction of a pier on the west side, to prevent its being choked with sand.

Both the American and Canadian shores of Lake Erie, especially towards Niagara, are among the most populous, and best settled of any districts in either country; a circumstance which accounts for the large number of vessels and steam-boats which find profitable employment on the lake. Lake Erie may be regarded as a central reservoir, from which open in all directions

the most extensive channels of inland navigation to be found in the world; enabling vessels from the lake to traverse the whole interior of the country; indeed, the map of the entire globe does not present another sheet of water so strikingly peculiar as Lake Erie, commanding, as it does, the navigable waters of North America. That justly celebrated American work, the Erie canal, commences at the city of Albany, terminates at Buffalo, in the county of Erie, and connects the waters of the Hudson river with those of Lake Erie. It is 363 miles in length, has 83 locks, (each 90 feet long in the clear, and 15 wide) of 689 feet rise and fall; having 18 aqueducts, the longest (at Rochester) 80½ feet across the Genesee river; the canal is 40 feet wide at the surface, 28 at the bottom, and 4 in depth. It was commenced in 1817, and finished in 1825. Together with the Champlain canal (which extends 6½ miles, with 188 feet of lockage country, connecting the Erie canal waters with those of Lake Champlain), its cost was upwards of 11,000,000 dollars, and the tolls thereon produced, some years ago, an annual income of upwards of one million dollars, which has, doubtless, since greatly increased. The Oswego canal, commencing at Syracuse in Onondaga, and terminating at Oswego, connects the Erie canal with the waters of Lake Ontario. It is 38 miles long, has 123 feet lockages, was completed in 1828, and cost 565,437 Spanish dollars. There are several other canals all branching in different directions, and connecting almost every lake and river, no matter how distant.

From the N., the vessels of Ontario visit Erie, through the Welland canal and river. This river, following its windings, is about 150 miles long, 1,000 feet wide, and navigable for 30 miles. On one of its branches called the Speed, 100 miles from its mouth, lies the thriving town of Guelph. It has been proposed to make the St. Lawrence a ship channel from Lake Ontario to Montreal, so that vessels from England may pass from Quebec into Erie, through Lake Ontario. The Ohio and Pennsylvania canals will open a communication, through the Ohio river, to the Mississippi, and another channel between Lake Erie and the Gulf of Mexico, presents itself by the way of Lakes Huron and Michigan. No country offers greater facilities for inland navigation; and as on the Grison Alps, a person may drink, without changing place, of a stream which flows into the Mediterranean, the Rhine,

and German Ocean, so it is not improbable that a point of junction may exist of the waters of the St. Lawrence, the Mississippi, and the Red River of Hudson's Bay, and the Colombia River, which are embosomed in the ocean at the extreme east, west, north, and south shores of the North American continent. Lake Erie is 560 feet above the tide waters of the Hudson, St. Clair 10 feet higher, Huron 19, and Superior 53, the last-mentioned being 612 feet above the ocean level. The sources of the Mississippi, which runs 3,120 miles, are 1,330 feet above the level of the sea.

The *Niagara River*, which connects Erie and Ontario Lakes, commences at the N.E. extremity of the former, and is the outlet not only of the waters of Erie, but also of the vast basins of Lakes Huron, Michigan, Superior, and their thousand tributaries. The river is $33\frac{1}{2}$ miles long in its bends (28 direct), and traverses a country unrivalled in richness and fertility. When first assuming the character of a river at Fort Erie, it is one mile wide, but soon contracts its bed, at Black Rock, to half a mile, and becomes rapid; then again expanding to its original dimensions, it flows on more gently, its general direction being from S. to N. From the ferry at Black Rock, where the current is 7 miles an hour, may be seen in perfection the mighty mass of waters rushing from the inland seas to join the parent ocean. Beyond Black Rock the river widens to enclose Grand Isle, 12 miles long, and 2 to 7 miles broad, with Square Isle at its head, and Navy Island at its foot (the only one in the Niagara river not ceded to the United States, by the decision of the commissioners, under the 6th article of the treaty of Ghent). Below Navy Island the river resembles a bay, being more than 2 miles in breadth, and then narrowing down the rapids to the far-famed Falls of Niagara, which are 20 miles from Lake Erie;—the whole river is navigable, except below Chippewa, where the indraught of the cataract begins to be felt.

Niagara Falls.—This celebrated cataract has been so often and so eloquently described, as scarcely to need more than a brief statement of the leading facts connected with it.

The river Niagara, previous to arriving at the ledge of limestone rocks (see geological section), over which it is precipitated with tremendous velocity, takes a sudden turn or bend to the N.N.E., its previous course

having been latterly due W., and forms what is termed the "Horseshoe Fall;"—the bend increases the violence of the rapid. On the New York side of the river, a small islet, termed Goat Island, separates a portion of the mighty torrent, and beyond it the cataracts on the British-American side may be said to commence. [See map.]

Of these the Horseshoe cataract is the largest; the curvatures of the fall have been geometrically computed at 700 yards, and its altitude, taken with a plumb line from the summit of the Table Rock, 119 feet; the American fall, narrowed by Goat Island does not exceed 375 yards in curvilinear length (the whole irregular semicircle measures nearly three-quarters of a mile); its perpendicular height being 162 feet, or 13 feet higher than the top of the Great Fall; adding 57 feet for the fall, the rapids thus give a total of 219 feet, which is less than that of other cataracts. The following estimate by an American writer, showing the height of various falls in different parts of the globe, may enable the general reader to form a better estimate of the comparative importance of those in our territory:—The Montmorency river, 9 miles below Quebec, 50 feet in breadth, fall of 250 feet; Chaudière, near the Montmorency, 100 feet; Mississippi, above its junction with the Ohio, 700 feet wide, fall 40 feet; Missouri, 500 miles from its sources, descent in 18 miles of 360 feet—the river is 1000 feet broad, one cataract is 87 feet broad, another 47, and another 26; Passaic, N. Jersey, stream 150 feet wide, falls into a chasm only 12 feet broad, 70 feet; Mohawk, at Cahoes, near its junction with the Hudson, 60 feet; Tuccoa, stream 20 feet wide, 187 feet; the Ache, in Bavaria, fall in 5 steps, 200 feet; Tequendama, South America, the river Bogotá, rises in the mountains 9000 feet above the level of the sea, and is precipitated through various gorges, chasms, and precipices, until it plunges into an immense chasm, 600 feet; Nile, at Syene, 40 feet; Gothea, in Sweden, fall at Trolhatta, 100 feet; Lattin, in Swedish Lapland, half a mile wide, fall 400 feet; Maamelven, in Norway, as related by Mr. Esmark, fall in three places; Schaffhaussen, 400 feet wide, fall 70 feet; Oreo, from Rosa, in Italy, descends in one continued cascade 1,200 feet; Staubbach, in Switzerland, a small stream, fall 1,400 feet; Terni, 45 miles N. of Rome, the river Velino fall, over marble rocks, 300 feet; at Tivoli, 18 miles N.E. of Rome, the

Anio, a branch of the Tiber, fall 100 feet. The magnificence of the falls of Niagara consists in the immense volume of water precipitated over them, which has been computed at 2,400 millions of tons per day=100 millions per hour! A calculation made at Queenston, below the falls, is as follows:—the river is here half a mile broad; it averages 25 feet deep; current 3 miles an hour; in 1 hour it will discharge a column of water 3 miles long, half a mile wide, and 25 feet deep, containing 1,111,140,000 cubic feet, being 18,524,000 cubic feet, or 113,510,000 gallons of water each minute.

Goat island which divides, and perhaps adds to the sublimity of the falls, is 330 yards wide, and covered with vegetation; the eastern or American bank of the river, and the islands thereon, are low and also covered with vegetation, which, with its soft beauty, is in strong contrast to the awful scene beneath; the W., or British, bank is more bold and lofty, consisting of a horizontal ridge of rocky table-land along the margin of the rapids, and gradually increasing in elevation from 10 to 100 feet; at the foot of this ridge, on a level with the summit of the Horseshoe Fall, is the Table Rock, famous as the spot where a close view of the cataract may be obtained; indeed it forms a section of the ledge over which part of the torrent is precipitated; its flat surface jutting out horizontally about 50 feet, and overhanging the terrific gulf.

At the foot of the cataract it is possible, though hazardous, to penetrate 30 yards behind the gigantic concave sheet of the headlong flood, where a cavern is formed of about 150 feet in height, 50 in breadth, and 300 in length, well adapted for the habitation of its present tenants—the eel and the water snake. The perilous path lies along the narrow margin of whirling eddies, beneath impending rocks, and amidst the jarring elements; great self-possession is therefore necessary in making the attempt, for one false step, or the least giddiness, might plunge the adventurer into the horrible vortex; a danger the more imminent because the path leads over sharp, broken, and excessively slippery rocks, on which it is extremely difficult to retain a footing, owing to the perpetual mossy moisture they imbibe from the oozing crevices of the superincumbent cliffs. This dangerous chasm is considered the best place for estimating the height of Niagara—that vast body of water which four great lakes, the least of which is

700 miles in compass, and which altogether comprise an area of 100,000 square miles pour forth to the ocean—and the overwhelming fury with which the mighty mass foams and boils when rushing from the precipice. Here also may best be witnessed the prismatic colours in all their changing beauty, as they form with the clouds of rising spray—while the snow-white billows rolled out by the meeting waters, and the awful roar sent up from the deep abyss, with the apparently trembling and quivering motion, imparted even to the massive rocks, produce an effect on the mind of the beholder, of which it is impossible to convey an adequate idea.

But from the Table Rock above, the Falls appear less terrific, but even more beautiful. The spectator may approach so near that, if he possess nerve enough, he may, by lying prostrate on the rock, and stretching forth his arm, move his hand in the dread torrent; but it is a fearful experiment, owing to the bewildering noise of the cataract. Here may be distinguished the first ripple by which the increasing rapidity of the Niagara is marked; the eye may follow it downwards in its growing impetuosity, where its waves roll in crested curls; or watch them where they no longer roll but rush with a loud roar of wild confusion, or uniting in a sheet of transparent emerald green, plunge into the gulf, and rising again in infinitely divided spray, float gossamer-like in mid air.

Colonel Bouchette observes that, according to the altitude of the sun, and the situation of the spectator, a distinct and bright Iris is seen amidst the revolving columns of mist that soar from the foaming chasm, and shroud the broad front of the gigantic flood; both arches of the bow are seldom entirely elicited, but the interior segment is perfect, and its prismatic hues are extremely glowing and vivid; the fragments of a plurality of rainbows are sometimes to be seen in various parts of the misty curtain.

The charm of this extraordinary scene is enhanced by the sight of the wild duck, and other water fowl, swimming down the rapids to the brink of the precipice, then flying out and re-descending with manifest delight—while above, the blue bird and the wren, during their annual visit to Niagara, fly within one or two feet of the brink, and sport over the frightful fall with evident enjoyment, now verging on the crystal stream that flows over the precipice, now dipping a wing in the bright green wave or skimming

swiftly along its surface:—who would not wish at such a moment for the wings of a bird? The sound of the falls is audible at various distances according to the state of the air, and the direction of the wind; it has been clearly distinguished at Buffalo, 18 miles distant, and some say the noise has been distinctly heard at Toronto, on the opposite shore of Lake Ontario, a distance of 16 miles. The roar of the Niagara is almost indescribable, being an alternation of open and muffled sounds, likened by some to the hoarse voice of ocean surges heavily lashing the shore—by others to the heavy plunge of huge spherical rocks hurled in quick and ceaseless succession from a precipice of great altitude, into waters of unfathomable depth—and among many other similitudes, its roaring, rumbling, thundering noise, is said to approximate most nearly to the pealing artillery of two large squadrons at sea in thick weather, the auditor being about five miles distant; such as may have been heard on the heights of Aboukir, when the fleets of Nelson and Bruce sent the reverberating echo of their dread hostilities along the Nile. A “suspension bridge” for Niagara is in progress, composed of wire, which it is supposed will be capable of sustaining a weight of 300 tons, to be conveyed over at a rate of 10 miles an hour. There are to be two tracks for carriages, and one for foot passengers. It is to be formed of three spans, with abutments 200 feet high. The estimated cost is 200,000 dollars.

A little below the falls, the Niagara resumes its wonted soft beauty, and flows calmly onward to Ontario, a distance of 13 miles. On reaching Queenston, 6 miles from the falls (Upper or Western Canada side), the face of the country suddenly alters, and rises in abrupt and elevated ridges, which are supposed to have been the banks of the river in former ages. About 4 miles above Queenston, is a singular part of the Niagara river called the whirlpool, the mouth of which is more than 1000 feet wide, its length being about 2000 feet. Mr. Howison, in his interesting sketches of Upper Canada, says, that the river has formed a circular excavation in the high and perpendicular banks, resembling a bay. The current, which is extremely rapid, whenever it reaches the upper point of this bay, forsakes the direct channel, and sweeps wildly round the sides of it;—having made this extraordinary circuit, it regains its original course, and rushes with perturbed velocity

between two perpendicular precipices, not more than 100 feet asunder. The surface of the whirlpool is in a state of continual agitation. The water boils, mantles up, and writhes in a fearful manner that proves its depth, and extreme compression; the trees that come within the sphere of the current, are swept along with a quivering zig-zag motion which it is difficult to describe. This singular body of water must be several hundred feet deep, and is not known to have been frozen over, although in spring the broken ice that descends from Lake Erie collects in such quantities upon its surface, and becomes so closely wedged together, that it resists the current, and remains there till broken up by the warm weather. The whirlpool is one of the greatest natural curiosities in the Upper province, and is the more remarkable, because unaccounted for by the ordinary laws of nature.

Fort George, or Niagara, or Newark, formerly the seat of government, (distant from Toronto, round the head of Lake Ontario, about 40 miles) is situate upon a rising ground on the W. bank of the River Niagara, within a mile of the angle formed by the river and the lake. From Fort George along the Niagara river to Queenston, a distance of eight miles, there is a considerable elevation of the land on either side of the river, extending both E. and W. about 14 miles. The land rises for 10 miles further to Chippewa, but the river is only navigable for large vessels as far as Queenston, where it is about 200 yards broad; from thence to the falls it seldom exceeds 50 or 60 yards in width.

The Niagara River enters Lake Ontario in N. lat. $43^{\circ} 15' 30''$, long. $79^{\circ} 00' 40''$; the difference of height between its efflux and afflux being 334 feet on a distance of $36\frac{1}{2}$ miles. Thus—difference of elevation between Lake Erie and the head of the rapids (distance 23 miles) 15 feet; thence to the foot of the rapids (half a mile) 51 feet; height of the great fall on the American side, 162 feet; from the base of the falls to Queenston (distance 13 miles) 104 feet; and from Queenston to Lake Ontario, 2 feet—total, 334 feet.

Lake Ontario is the last link in the chain, and the most easterly of the great inland American seas, which may well rank among the wonders of the world. It lies E. and W., nearly half being in the state of New York, and is situate between the parallels $43^{\circ} 10'$

and $44^{\circ} 11'$ N. lat., and the meridians of $76^{\circ} 25'$ and $79^{\circ} 56'$ W. long.; in form it is elliptical, and measures 172 miles on a central line drawn from its S.W. to its N.E. extremity; in its greatest breadth 59 miles, medial 40, and about 500 miles in circumference; its surface being 231 feet above the tide waters at Three Rivers, on the St. Lawrence, and at Albany, on the Hudson. The breadth varies greatly; from Toronto (York) to Niagara it is 35 miles; from Presqu'île to Genessee river, 60 miles; from Ernest town to Oswego, 55 miles; and from Kingston to Sacket's Harbour, round the head of Wolf or Grand Island, 36 miles. According to some examinations, the depth also varies very much, there being seldom less than 3, or more than 50 fathoms; except in the middle, where, at a depth of 300 fathoms no soundings have been obtained. The shores of Ontario are generally covered with gravel, consisting principally of small pieces of limestone, worn smooth by the action of the water; the gravel is deposited on the beach in long ridges, sometimes several miles in extent, and when consolidated with the clayey soil which generally abounds along the shore, it becomes firm under the feet, and furnishes an excellent material for the formation of roads. The water of Ontario, like that of the other lakes, and of the St. Lawrence river, is limpid and pure (though not equally so with that of Lake Huron or part of Lake Michigan), except when mixed with particles of earth from the shore, by the agitation of the winds (those of the Ohio and Mississippi are turbid, like the Ganges and Orinoco); the water of Ontario is used for drink, and also for washing, though it is not so suitable for the solution of soap as rain water. For a few days in June the water near the shores is annually covered with a yellowish scum, rendering it unfit for culinary or other purposes: the cause of this phenomenon is unknown. During the height of summer, the shore-water is too warm for pleasant drinking, unless kept some hours in a cool cellar. Gales of wind on this lake are frequent, and attended with an unpleasant "sea." Every seven years the waters of the lake rise to an unusual height, for which no satisfactory reason has as yet been given. The refractions which take place on Ontario in calm weather are very remarkable; islands and trees appear turned upside down; the white surf of the beach seems to be translated aloft; large fountains of water appear to swell upon the horizon.

The physical aspect of the shores of Ontario exhibits great diversity; towards the N.E. they are low, with swampy marshes; to the N. and N.W. the banks assume a bold appearance; which again subside to almost a plain on the southern or American shore; but well relieved, in the back-ground, by a ridge of hills, which, after forming the precipice of the Niagara cataract, stretch away to the eastward. The country bordering the lake is well wooded, and through the numerous openings, the prospect is enlivened by flourishing settlements; the view being extremely picturesque along the white cliff of Toronto, heightened on the N. by the remarkable high land over Presqu'île, called the Devil's Nose.

A range of high land runs from the Bay of Quinté, on the N.W. of the lake, along the northern shores of Ontario to the westward, at a distance, in some places, of not more than 9 miles from them (as at Hamilton), dividing the numerous streams and head waters falling into that lake from those descending N. into the river Trent, Rice Lake, Otanabee river, and the contiguous chain of lakes. At Toronto (York) this ridge recedes N.E. from the lake to the distance of 24 miles, separating the waters of Holland river, and other streams falling into Lakes Huron and Simcoe, from those discharging themselves into Lake Ontario. The ridge then bending round the heads of the Toronto river and its tributary streams, divides them from those of the Grand or Ouse river, pursues a south-eastwardly direction towards the head of the lake, merges in the Burlington Heights, and runs along the shores of Burlington Bay, and the S.W. side of Lake Ontario (at a distance of from 4 to 8 miles), to Queenston Heights; the direction continuing eastward until it stretches into the territory of the United States, to Lockport on Erie Canal (12 miles from Lake Ontario), which it crosses and with which it runs parallel, until it arrives at Rochester, on the Genessee banks, where it subsides; thus, as it were, forming the shores of the original basin of the lake, as far as regards the greater part of its northern and southern boundary. The ridge on the American side of Lake Ontario is called the Ridge Road, or Alluvial Way; it extends 87 miles from Rochester, on the Genessee, to Lewiston, on the Niagara, and is composed of common beach sand and gravel stones worn smooth, intermixed with small shells; its general width is from 1 to 8 rods, and it rises in the

middle in a handsome crowning arch, from 6 to 10 feet in height; at Genessee and Niagara its elevation is about 130 feet.

Many tributaries flow into Lake Ontario; which receives from the state of New York the rivers Niagara, Genessee, Oswego, and Black river, besides many smaller streams. Almost all these have a sand bar across their entrance. Among its bays, on the same side are Chaumont, Sodees (Great and Little) Toronto, and Braddocks.

The principal river on the N. British shore is the Trent, which issues out of Rice Lake, and after a very circuitous course of 100 miles, falls into the Bay of Quinté, near the village of Sidney. The Otarabee, which falls into the N. shore of Rice Lake, may be considered a continuation of the Trent river; of which Rice Lake is merely an expansion, as is so frequently the case in American rivers. The Otarabee, like the Trent, is a broad and full river, and both are navigable for boats. From its source in Trent Lake, it communicates by a chain of lakes with Lake Simcoe, through which it is proposed to open a canal communication between Lakes Huron and Ontario.

Simcoe Lake, in Home district, between Lakes Huron and Ontario, with an area of 300 square miles, is the most extensive interior lake of Upper Canada; the elevation of its surface (estimated by the height of the frequent falls and cascades by which its outlet is broken) is 100 feet above the level of Lake Huron, and, therefore, much higher than either Lakes Erie or Ontario. It is proposed to connect Simcoe with Huron and Ontario Lakes by canals; which, however, would require frequent lockage, though the distance is comparatively small. The lands in the vicinity of Lake Simcoe are remarkably fine; and from the depth of soil and equality of the surface, peculiarly easy of cultivation.

Rice Lake, in the district of Newcastle, about 15 miles from Lake Ontario, and lying nearly S.W. and N.E., is 25 miles long by 5 wide. Its name is derived from the wild rice growing on its margin and in the surrounding marshes.

Several navigable bays occur on both sides of Ontario, particularly on the British shore, where Quinté and Burlington Bays stand conspicuous; the commodiousness of the latter (in the S.W. angle of the lake) was impaired by a sand bank—but this disadvantage is now remedied by a canal, which renders this safe and capacious bay

highly valuable; Quinté bay is secure, but its navigation rather intricate, owing to the windings and indentations of the shore of Prince Edward peninsula, by which it is fronted, together with many islands which, clustering at the end of the lake, divide its extremity into several channels. Stoney and Grenadier islands are at the east end of Ontario; Wolfe, or Grand Island, is at the entrance of the St. Lawrence; and the celebrated Thousand Islands are just below Wolfe or Grand Island—which, being placed at the commencement of the Cataraqui (Iroquois, or St. Lawrence) River, forms two channels leading into Kingston Harbour, bearing the names of the North, or Kingston Channel, and the South, or Carleton Island Channel.

Of the harbours, the most considerable, on the American side, is Sacket's Harbour, which is an excellent haven on the S.E. shore, well fortified, with extensive arsenals and excellent docks for the construction of the largest-sized ships of war. One of the three-decker ships of war built here by the Americans during the war, had 182 feet 8 inches keel, 212 feet on the lower gun deck, and 52 feet beam: 800 shipwrights were employed 42 days in running up this immense vessel.

Toronto, formerly called Little York, is situated in the township of York, near the N.W. extremity of Lake Ontario, in $43^{\circ} 39'$ N. lat., $79^{\circ} 36'$ W. long. The harbour covers an area of 8 square miles, and is formed and well-sheltered by a long low sandy, almost insulated peninsula, in some places not 60 yards broad, but widening at its extremity to nearly a mile, where there is a good light-house with an elevation of 70 feet. In 1793 when Mr. Bouchette visited this spot, he found dense forests, and a solitary wigwam. In 1794 the first rudiments of a British settlement were formed.

In 1817 Toronto contained 1,200, and in 1826 only 1,700 inhabitants. For five miles around scarcely one improved farm could be seen adjoining another; the average being one farm-house in every three miles. Toronto had no brick houses, no tinued roofs, no planked side-walks: the stumps of trees remained in the streets; the site of the present excellent market place was an unhealthy bog—no banks, no markets, no sewers—a few stores, and scarcely a schooner frequenting its wharfs. Now Toronto contains 30,000 busy and intelligent citizens—rows of handsome brick buildings roofed

with tin—numerous places of worship—splendid shops or stores, with plate glass windows—gas-lit and macadamized streets—town or city hall—a noble university—wharfs loaded with produce, and crowded with steam-boats and schooners—board of trade—mechanics' institute—public baths—a fixed and floating property estimated at £5,000,000;—and around and about the city, in all directions, villas, farms, fine orchards and gardens. The principal entrance to the city is Yonge-street—a broad macadamized road, which runs several miles into the interior, studded on either side with mansions, dwellings, and cottages of the most pleasing and comfortable aspect. There is a race-course, cricket-ground and racket-court, and a bowling-green, not excelled by any out of England. The college under the direction of Mr. Barron, and the university presided over by Dr. McCaul, are institutions of high repute. They are liberally endowed, and the instruction given in all branches of learning is on a solid basis and for reasonable terms.

The new college consists of five neat brick buildings, surmounted by an ornamental dome. A railroad is projected from Toronto to the mouth of Shawegone on Lake Huron river, 60 miles N. of Goderich, where a good harbour can be made. The distance to Lake Huron by the proposed route is 120 miles.

The classification of the Population of Toronto, and the Division of Wards, is shown in the Census of the City of Toronto, Canada, for 1845, compiled from the Assessor's Returns:

Males and Females.	WARDS.					
	St. David's.	St. Patrick's.	St. Andrew's.	St. Lawrence.	St. George's.	Total.
Males over sixteen	1971	1221	1120	901	450	5678
Males over five and under sixteen	793	605	500	291	160	2355
Males under five	595	466	360	214	121	1752
Females over sixteen	2115	1317	1151	740	532	5863
Females over five and under sixteen	801	555	471	260	160	2271
Females under five	648	454	364	209	113	1787
Total	6931	4624	3981	2618	1514	*
* Total	19,706					
Total in 1835	9,765					
Increase	9,941					

RELIGIOUS PERSUASIONS.

Denominations	WARDS.					
	St. David's.	St. Patrick's.	St. Andrew's.	St. Lawrence.	St. George's.	Total.
Church of England	2635	1940	1780	1233	779	8367
Church of Scotland	297	230	183	149	69	928
Presbyterian Church of Canada	520	437	325	188	127	1597
United Secession Church	147	106	57	19	26	355
Independent Presbyterians	1	4	—	—	2	7
Church of Rome	1738	624	708	641	335	1016
British Wesleyan Methodists	462	448	321	112	58	1401
Wesleyan Methodist Church in Canada	457	219	181	69	15	924
Episcopal Methodists	2	—	4	—	—	6
Primitive Methodists	119	82	42	14	52	310
Other Methodists	25	11	43	15	4	200
Congregationalists	199	171	107	42	52	572
Lutherans	—	1	—	—	1	2
Jews	—	—	2	10	—	12
Disciples of Christ	42	14	24	19	1	100
Universalists	—	—	11	1	—	12
Covenanters	20	2	—	—	—	25
Baptists	122	187	138	43	3	493
Quakers	5	—	—	2	—	9
Unitarians	13	7	—	—	—	20
Millerites	11	17	18	—	—	42
Christians	1	—	—	—	—	1
Socialists	2	—	—	—	—	2
Mormon	—	—	1	—	—	1
No Religion	130	21	40	60	21	271

An intending settler, in a journey in 1844 through the country north of Toronto, recorded the following observations, which may interest immigrants:—

“With the drive through the beautiful country on either side the Great North-road (Yonge-street) we were highly delighted. The crops, though late, were luxuriant, and hold out to the farmer promise of a large return, and good prices. Gentlemen's seats and handsome farm-houses, cheered the sight until we reached the ‘Oak Ridges.’ We there found the road naturally very good though a gravel track, and arrived at the ‘Pinnacle Inn,’ after attaining a height of 800 feet above the waters of Ontario:—having passed the picturesque little sheet of water called ‘Bond Lake’ on the right, said to be without soundings; a little beyond the ‘Pinnacle,’ the road gradually descends, until the eye at length rests upon a rich and widely extended region, consisting of hill and dale, thickly covered with rich farms of the most valuable description. Before us lay this beautiful picture, stretching fifteen or twenty miles, whilst far off to the right we now and then obtained peeps at the vales of Newmarket and Davidtown. On our left we passed scores of thriving, beautiful farms, whose brick houses and comfortable out-buildings betokened the wealth of the owners. Among these stands conspicuous the handsome residence of Captain Irving. At Holland Landing (head of the Holland River) we came to a pretty little village, with mills, shops, &c., and were comfortably lodged at Fraser's hotel, after a pleasing drive of six miles. The following morning at seven we were on board the well regulated steam-boat *Shucee*. A calm lake and the good fare provided by our obliging and intelligent host, Captain Loughton, made this part of our excursion

peculiarly pleasant. The windings of Holland River for seven miles through a meadow of reeds and wild grass are extremely curious; in one instance the angle of the Elbow was so acute, that the head of the boat was within a few points of the compass of the house from which we started. This prairie abounds with wild duck, and on its margin are found woodcock and snipe, in numbers to gratify the most stidious sportsman. Emerging from this crooked stream, we struck boldly into the transparent waters of Lake Simcoe. On the east shore of the lake, and seven miles from the mouth of the river, we stopped at Roach's Point, a pretty little settlement, with an inn, store, &c. The farms we passed in coming to this place studded thickly the whole shore, and the wheat crops particularly were remarkable for their fine appearance. Leaving this place we passed close to Snake Island, a pretty spot, containing 400 acres, or thereabouts. Here the Government has erected twenty or more comfortable cottages for Indian families, who pass their time happily and profitably in cultivating their farms, in hunting and in fishing. A church with a tin covered spire is soon to be built for them; this will greatly add to the present cheering aspect of their little hamlet. Twelve miles from Roach's Point, after running by scores of fine farms and fields waving with luxuriant wheat, we came to Jackson's Landing, a sheltered, pretty little nook, with a shore so bold that the steamer could any where lie alongside it. A little in the rear of this harbour is a populous settlement on the road leading to Toronto. Near the Landing is the fine farm and pretty stone cottage, with green verandah, of Captain Gouchier, R.N. A mile beyond this, the spire of a neat church rears its head above the rich surrounding foliage. A resident clergyman is in charge. Near the church, on a pretty jutting point, stands the handsome residence of Mrs. Sibbald, surrounded apparently by that neatness and comfort which render a country life desirable. Captain Lee's fine farm, and one belonging to Mr. Campbell (late of the North American Hotel), adjoin that of Mrs. Sibbald. The forest is here pierced every quarter of a mile by a pretty clearing, with its dwelling, barns, and out-houses around it, until we arrive at Beavertown, or Little Talbot, where the lesser branch of the Talbot River falls into the lake. We passed between the main shore and Georgina Island, a naturally beautiful spot, six miles in length, and containing perhaps 2000 acres. It belongs, like all the other islands, to the Indians, and is taken care of by the Government for their use as a hunting and fishing station.

Beavertown, or Beaverton, is a flourishing little place, contains two saw-mills and a grist-mill, and is supported by a fine settlement in the rear: the water would drive extensive machinery. Opposite this village is another Indian island, called Thorah Island, containing about 1,200 acres. Beyond this we passed the mouth of the Great Talbot River, over which a bridge was visible from the boat. We now came to Chewitt's Point, in the township of Mara, and then stretched across a deep bay, to Creighton Point. This is a beautiful strip of land, containing upwards of 900 acres, covered with fine forest trees, among which the elm, the ash, the oak, and the maple predominate. On this Point the Indians make every spring many thousands of pounds of maple sugar. This beautiful Point, together with the whole frontage, until we passed through the Narrows (probably fifteen miles along the line of shore), is the property of Captain Creighton, of To-

ronto, who purchased it as long since as 1831. We now rapidly approached the beautiful entrance to the far-famed Narrows.

Lake Simcoe is in length about 45 miles, and varies in breadth from 2 to 20 miles; perhaps the widest part is between Thorah and the county town, Barrie. The basin which contains this limpid lake is formed of secondary limestone, alternating with clay and marl. At Holland Landing the lake has evidently receded from the foot of the hill, where Thorne's mill now stands. This hill branches off to the north at the Landing, and passing by the rear of the Barrie, skirts the lake until it arrives at the Narrows, where, passing in rear of the little village of Orillia, it shoots away toward the north-west. On the east shore of the lake the soil is said to be richer than that on the west. This may be occasioned by the westerly winds causing the *debris* of the west bank to be deposited on the shore. The country rises gradually from the water on the east shore of the lake, until it attains an elevation of 300 feet. The circumference of Lake Simcoe being 120 miles, it is natural to suppose so large a body of water would make for itself a channel in some direction. This has been effected at the Narrows, where the hills begin to recede from the lake. At this point there is a perceptible current toward the north, which, increasing as it flows through this contracted highway, acquires the velocity of three or four miles per hour, until it becomes mingled with the waters of the pretty Lake Couchiching. Lake Couchiching is 40 miles in circumference, and forms at its N.W. extremity the river Severn. Here its waters, mingled with those of Lake Simcoe, are hurried over rocky precipices and rapids, until finally they reach the surface of Lake Huron. The Narrows, from shore to shore, are only 300 yards. The bottom is a greasy marl, through which the water has worn a channel nine feet deep, and only thirty feet in width. We saw shoals of large fish as we passed through, the transparency of the water enabling us to distinguish the class they belonged to at a depth of several feet. The steamer at length landed us within the little lake, at the village of Orillia. A comfortable inn and clean beds induced us to prolong our stay three days. At Orillia a good road conducts the traveller to Coldwater, on Lake Huron. About 2,000 bushels of surplus wheat were purchased last winter at Mr. Dallas's fine mills, near the Narrows, for which he paid (and is now paying) 5s. cash per bushel. At Holland Landing 10,000 bushels were brought from the circuit of the lake, and produced the same price. In the Indian village in Lake Couchiching, are quarries of free-stone, limestone of several shades and kinds, and abundance of fire-stone. These quarries are worked without the use of gunpowder, and produce slabs of an extraordinary size. The day is probably not far off when all the pretty points at the Narrows will be studded with the cottages of gentlemen, attracted thither by the healthfulness of the climate, the beauty of the scenery, or the richness of the soil. Shooting they will have in abundance; and the waters abound with muskonge, the white-fish, salmon-trout, black bass, and herrings of a very fine and large kind: the smaller fish are also plentiful.

Tiny, one of the townships beyond Lake Simcoe, now in progress of settling, is about seventeen miles in length, and averages about seven miles in breadth. It is bounded on the west and north by Lake Huron, on the east by Penetanguishene Bay and Penetan-

guishene-road, and on the south by the Township of Flos. The village of Penetanguishene is situated on the east side of this township, near the southern extremity of Gloucester Bay. In this village there are four merchants' stores; but their trade is chiefly with the Indians for fur. The buildings, with the exception of about four or five, are all of log. The inhabitants, in all, are probably about one hundred, and are chiefly composed of French Roman Catholic Canadians, a good deal intermixed with half-caste Indians, and are principally dependent on the fur trading and fishing for their support. There is a Catholic church and clergyman in the place, and a rather large congregation is afforded between the village and neighbouring settlement. There are now about a thousand inhabitants, who have grist and saw-mills, and are rapidly thriving. About two miles further north, or up the Bay, on the Township of Tay Side, there are Government Barracks and a military establishment."

On the margin of Lake Ontario, between Toronto and Kingston, the whole country is extremely fertile and beautifully cultivated. Port Hope, Cobourg, Bond Head, and Whitby are the principal towns and ports.

Newcastle harbour, in the township of Grahame, is situate somewhat more than halfway between Toronto and Kingston; it is well protected from winds, and almost encircled by a peninsula, which projects in a curve into the lake, forming a basin of sufficient depth for shipping, and affording a good landing. The harbour is somewhat difficult of entrance.

Peterborough, the district town of Newcastle, is well placed at the foot of a series of rapids formed by numerous scattered inland lakes and streams. A recent visitor says:—

"Between the village of Peterborough and the navigable waters in the rear, a space of eight miles intervenes, presenting a wild turbulent rush of waters, alternately swift streams, dangerous rapids, and every mile or so a noisy cascade. The river flows through a limestone formation, in some instances stretching from bank to bank, one hundred yards of solid smooth rock. Beyond this chain of rapids the waters spread out in every form and shape the imagination can suggest. Lakes varying in size from one to ten and twelve miles in diameter—the rolling lands covered to the margin with the luxuriant foliage of boundless and magnificent forests: the soil singularly fertile; the climate favourable to human health. Along the surface of these waters the voyager may sail in deeply-laden boats for ninety miles east and west, and thirty miles north and south: but the stillness of the forest is around him, with few exceptions nothing greets his gaze save the monotonous outline of the sombre and gloomy forest; an occasional savage may be seen chasing the deer, spearing his fishy prey, or awaiting the dark clouds of wild fowl which resort to these haunts almost undisturbed. The signs of civilization are few and far apart—stretching away to the west, and ascending a deep placid river, bounded by high cliffs of limestone,

the voyager approaches a fall but little known, yet combining in an eminent degree all the attributes which constitute beauty. From Balsam Lake, an opening of circular form and immense depth. Indian traders are in the habit of ranging the country along the shallow streams, until they gain the waters of Simcoe on one side, and approach those of the Ottawa on the other; but as yet no indications of settlement or agricultural improvement are perceptible. Descending the stream from that point, we first enter a small lake surrounded with swelling ridges of pine, from whence the waters pass through a channel called after an ancient Indian tribe who dwelt upon its margin, and whose graves yet remain—the Otonabee, a name soft and musical if pronounced in the Indian dialect. This stream leads the navigator into Rice Lake, from thence he passes down the Trent into the Bay of Quinte. Such are the outlines of the country—such the facilities and difficulties of its navigation."

In 1827 the spot on which is now the flourishing town of Guelph, with its surrounding rich agricultural district, was a dense, untrodden wilderness. The value of the land along the Detroit river in the western district increased 300 per cent. in three years. Dr. Rolph, writing in 1841, stated that "some farmers who would have sold their farms two years ago for 1,200 dollars, have refused this year 20,000 dollars for the very same property."

The town plot of London at the forks of the Thames, was only surveyed in 1826, it now contains five thousand inhabitants; a thousand houses; a court house, several temples of worship, large market-place, schools, public libraries, hotels, and many excellent merchants' stores. A fifth of an acre for building fronts, recently sold at the rate of £100 an acre, whereas the original town lots had cost but £10 an acre.

Hamilton is a flourishing town at the western extremity of Ontario. It contains buildings which would be no disgrace to any city in Europe. An extensive nail manufactory has been established, with machinery equal to any other of the kind in America. Forty acres of land that might have been bought in 1833 for £600 had so increased in value in 1839 that one acre sold by public auction for £1,250.

The progress and state of the different divisions of Western Canada will be shewn when examining their products in 1848.

Kingston, distant from Toronto, 184, and from Montreal 180 miles, stands in lat. 44° 8', lon. 76° 40' W, it is advantageously situate on the north bank of Lake Ontario at the head of the river St. Lawrence, and separated from Points Frederick and Henry, by a bay which extends a considerable dis-

tance to the N.W. beyond the town, where it receives the waters of a river flowing from the interior. Point Frederick is a long narrow peninsula, extending about half a mile into the lake in a S.E. direction, distant from Kingston about three quarters of a mile. This peninsula forms the west side of a narrow and deep inlet called Navy Bay, from its being our chief naval depôt on Lake Ontario. The extremity of the point is surmounted by a strong battery, and there is a dockyard with store-houses, &c.

Point Henry, which forms the E. side of Navy Bay, is a high narrow rocky ridge, extending into the lake in the same direction as Point Frederick. It is crowned by a fort, built on the extremity of the ridge, and occupying the highest point of ground in this part of Canada. The dock-yard, storehouses, slips for building ships of war, naval barracks, wharfs, &c., are on an extensive scale; during the war, a first-rate (the *St. Lawrence*) carrying 102 guns, was built here, and in a case of emergency, a formidable fleet could in a very short time be equipped at Kingston. About the year 1600 the French seeing the value of this position commenced a settlement, which was at first called by the Indian name of Cataragui, and subsequently Frontenac; but on our conquest of the province it received its present name.

Kingston, next to Quebec and Halifax, is the strongest British post in America, and next to Quebec and Montreal, the first in commercial importance; it has rapidly risen of late years, by becoming, through the means of the Rideau canal, the chief entrepôt between the trade of Eastern Canada, and all the settlements on the great lakes to the westward. In 1828, the population of the city amounted to 3,528. In 1848 to 8,360.

The increasing value of property is shown in the fact that Bishop Macdonnel, in 1816, bought 11 acres for £600, and in 1840 sold the land in building lots for £1,000 an acre. In the same year the Rev. Mr. Herchmer held 200 acres valued at £200, and in 1841 government bought 188 of the acres for £30,000, and the proprietor reserved to himself 12 acres facing Lake Ontario. In 1809, an estate of 100 acres, known as the Murney property, was purchased from the original grantee for £500, and in 1840 government purchased 32 acres of the estate for £19,000. Kingston has the finest market-place in America, and 300 or 400 teams may be seen at one time in the market. In a few years 700 houses were built,

principally of dark freestone, at a cost of £100,000. The population doubled itself in 1 year. A fleet of 200 barges, and schooners of 60 to 250 tons burthen, are employed at Kingston in transshipping the up and down freight on the lake. What a contrast the present navigation on the lakes offers to the period when the French built the first vessel on the shores of Lake Erie in 1679, and named it the *Griffen*. She was manned by a crew of Frenchmen, and commanded by La Salle, the celebrated voyageur, who navigated the Mississippi to the sea.

The importance of the inland navigation afforded by the St. Lawrence and the other great lakes it is difficult to overrate. Vessels may now traverse an extent of water equal to the distance between Europe and America. Supposing a steam propeller to take freight at Ogdensburgh, an inland point on the St. Lawrence, more than 650 miles from the Atlantic, for Chicago, she travels a distance of 1,300 miles. Having freight now offered for the military posts on Lake Superior, she runs (supposing the St. Mary's lock at the Sault to be built) an additional 800, making it 2,100 miles; and her direct return route with produce would be full 1,000 more, making in all a distance equal to that between America and Europe. This inland journey may be increased to 4,000 miles by commencing the trip at some of the lower ports on the St. Lawrence. As an illustration—

Quebec is 350 miles from the ocean. The completion of the Welland canal and similar works on the St. Lawrence invites commerce, and by the above means steam-vessels will extend their trips beyond Montreal and Kingston to the head of Lake Ontario, at the terminns of the Welland Canal, a distance of 600 miles. From this point they proceed westward to Chicago, 1000 miles further, and return to Quebec with grain or produce, without a single transshipment. This direct business trip is 3,200 miles long, and may, of course, be continued to the ocean. The trade is now with Kingston and Montreal, but it must extend still further down on both sides of the St. Lawrence.

By means of the Welland canal the navigation of the lake is uninterrupted for the distance of 844 miles from E. to W., and from N. to S. for a varying distance, of which the extreme range is 347 miles. A large part of the 400,000 square miles of

country which these lakes drain is remarkably rich and varied, and, when cultivated, yields in abundance subsistence for man and beast.

On the Ontario Lake 40 steam-vessels are employed in traffic and in the conveyance of passengers. During the winter the N.E. part of Ontario, from the Bay of Quinté to Sacket's Harbour, is frozen across; but the wider part of the lake is frozen only to a short distance from the shore. On Lake Erie, which is frozen less than Ontario, there are about 100 steamers of various sizes, some of them carrying 1,500 passengers at a time to the settlements on Lake Michigan; the northern parts of Huron and Michigan are more frozen than either Erie or Ontario; and Superior is said to be frozen to a distance of 70 miles from its coasts. On Lake Huron there are only a few steamers; and on Lake Superior, a lesser number; but one steamer continually plies to and from Buffalo. The navigation of Ontario closes in October; ice-boats are sometimes used when the ice is *glare* (smooth). One of these is described by Lieut. De Roos as 23 feet in length, resting on 3 skates of iron, one attached to each end of a strong cross-bar, fixed under the fore part,—the remaining one to the stern, from the bottom of the rudder, the mast and sail are those of a common boat: when brought into play on the ice, she could sail (if it may be so termed), with fearful rapidity, nearly 23 miles an hour. In addition to her speed before the wind, she is also capable of beating well up to windward,—requiring, however, an experienced hand to manage her, in consequence of the extreme sensibility of the rudder during her quick motion.

The appearance of the N.E. extremity of Ontario, at its junction with the St. Lawrence river at Kingston, is so strikingly beautiful, as to have obtained for it the poetical appellation of the "Lake of the Thousand Isles." As the St. Lawrence issues from Ontario, it is 12 miles wide, divided into two channels by Wolfe Island, which is 7 miles broad, the widest channel on the N. side being $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles across.

The second British township, Leeds, 32 miles below Kingston (at the mouth of the Gananoqui river) has an excellent harbour: the river continues narrowing down to Prescott, which is distant 62 miles from Kingston, 243 from Toronto, and 385 from Quebec. Prescott is well defended by its stronghold, Fort Wellington, which commands the navigation of the river.

A few miles below Prescott the St. Lawrence commences flowing rapidly, and has a shallow course for four miles, with a speed of from six to eight miles an hour, interrupted by two small rapids, the Du Plat and Galoose, half a mile, and a mile and a half long. The most difficult rapid is the Long Sault, in front of Osnaburgh above Cornwall (46 miles from Montreal) which is about 9 miles long, intersected by several islands, through whose channels the water rushes with velocity, so that boats are carried on it at the rate of 27 miles an hour; at the foot of the Rapid, the water takes a sudden leap over a slight precipice, whence its name.

The Cedar Rapids, 24 miles from La Chine, are 9 miles long, and very intricate; the waters run at the rate of from 9 to 12 miles an hour, with in some places only 10 feet depth in the channel. The Coteau du Lac rapid, 6 miles above the Cedars, is 2 miles long, intricate, and in some places only 16 feet wide.

To improve the navigation between Eastern and Western Canada, and to place the internal traffic beyond the reach of molestation during any war that might unfortunately occur with America, has been a leading object with the British government and local legislature, and large sums have consequently been expended on different public works, and especially on canals.

The *Rideau Canal*.—This far-famed undertaking, which is not, properly speaking, a canal, but rather a succession of waters raised by means of dams, with natural lakes intervening, commences at a small bay, called Entrance Bay, in the Ottawa, 128 miles from Montreal, and 150 from Kingston, in N. lat. $45^{\circ} 30'$, W. long. $76^{\circ} 50'$ —about a mile below the Falls of Chaudière, and one mile and a half above the point where the Rideau river falls into the Ottawa. From Entrance Bay the canal is entered by eight locks; it then passes through a natural gully, crosses Dow's Swamp—which is flooded by means of a mound—Peter's gully, by means of an aqueduct, and joins the Rideau river at the Hog's Back, about six miles from Entrance Bay. At the Hog's Back there is a dam 15 feet high, and 400 long, which, by throwing back the river, converts about 7 miles of rapids into still, navigable water. The canal rises into the river by means of a lock. A series of locks and dams now commences, with occasional embankments.

At the Black Rapids there are a dam and lock, 138 miles from Montreal; a dam, three locks, and two embankments, at Long Island Rapids, which render the river navigable for 24 miles, to Barret's Rapids, 167 miles from Montreal; 8 dams and 14 locks bring the canal to Olive's Ferry, 210 miles from Montreal, where the Rideau Lake contracts to 463 feet wide, and a ferry connects the road between Perth and Brockville. At the Upper Narrows, 16 miles further, the Rideau Lake contracts again to about 80 feet across, over which a dam is thrown with a lock of 4 feet lift, forming the Upper Rideau Lake into a summit pond of 291 feet above Entrance Bay, in the Ottawa; 6 miles further is the isthmus, which separates the Upper Rideau Lake from Mud Lake, the source of the River Cataraqui. The canal is cut through this isthmus, which is one mile and a half wide; 5 miles lower down is the Isthmus Clear Lake, 330 feet wide, through which a cut is made, to avoid the rapids of the natural channel.

From thence to Cranberry Marsh, 17 miles from Isthmus Clear Lake, 255 miles from Montreal, and 23 from Kingston, there are 3 dams and 6 locks. The Marsh is about 78 feet above the level of Kingston harbour, and about 8 miles long. Besides flowing into the Cataraqui river, the waters of this marsh or lake burst out at White Fish Fall, and flow into the Gananoqui river, which is the waste weir for regulating the level of the water in the Rideau Lake (the summit pond); thus the water in the whole line of canal, whether in times of flood or drought, is kept at a steady height. At Brewer's Upper and Lower Mills, 18 and 17 miles from Kingston, there are 3 dams and 3 locks; and at Kingston Mills, 5 miles from Kingston, one dam and 4 locks. The Canal, or Cataraqui River, falls into Kingston Bay at these mills, at a distance from Montreal of 273 miles.

The canal now described opens, it will be perceived, a water communication between Kingston and the Ottawa, a distance of 132 miles, by connecting together several pieces of water lying in that direction, viz.: Kingston Mill-stream, Cranberry Lake, Mud Lake, Rideau Lake and river, the length of the cuts not exceeding 20 miles. The difference of level is 445 feet; about 20 miles are excavated some parts of the distance through rocks. There are 47 locks, each 142 feet

in length, 33 in breadth, and with a water depth of 5 feet, which admit vessels under 125 tons. The expenditure on this canal greatly exceeded the original estimate, which was only £169,000—the next, before the plan of enlarging the locks was adopted, amounted to £186,000, which was raised by the addition of the locks to £762,673; but the total expenditure is now calculated to exceed one million sterling. The locks were originally planned upon a scale to correspond with those on La Chine canal, *i.e.* 100 feet by 20; these dimensions were subsequently increased to 112 feet in length by 33 in width, with a depth of 5 feet water; hence a considerable augmentation of expense. The canal has been in use 16 years, and every part of it looks fresh and perfect as when first finished. At each lock station, neat lock-master's houses have been built, trees planted, and grass-plats formed; the whole surrounded by substantial iron railings, stone walls, or wooden fences.

A more striking proof of the good effect of this fine canal can scarcely be desired, than that 15 years ago there was but one farm on the long bend of the Rideau river, 27 miles, while now there is scarcely an unsettled lot. The country along the banks of the canal, and the shores of its numerous lakes, is very generally occupied. The former hamlet of Newborough, at the Isthmus, has become a thriving, well-built, and populous village, with stores, taverns, post office, &c. Westport, on the Upper Rideau Lake, is also thriving. The land around is good, crops excellent, and settlements are forming in the interior.

The *Welland Canal* connects Lake Erie with Lake Ontario. It was not undertaken by government, but by a company incorporated by the legislature in 1825. This canal communicates with Lake Ontario by the Twelve-mile Creek, and is conducted over the range of hills forming the barrier of Lake Erie, at the Falls of Niagara, by means of locks, until it meets the Chippawa at 8½ miles from its mouth, which it then ascends for about 11 miles, and joins the Onse upon Lake Erie at about one mile and a half from its mouth: the shifting bar at the entrance of the Onse being remedied by piers extending into deep water beyond the bar. The length of the canal is 42 miles, its width 56 feet, and its depth 8½: the summit level is 330 feet, the ascending locks are 37 in number (made of wood), 22 feet wide, and 100 feet long. The cost

of this canal has been upwards of £500,000; but it now yields a rapidly increasing return for the capital expended.

The *Grenville Canal* consists of three sections, one at the Long Sault on the Ottawa—another at the fall called the Chûte à Blondeau, 60 miles from Montreal and 218 from Kingston—and a third at the Carillon Rapids, 56 miles from Montreal and 222 from Kingston, opening into the Lake of the Two Mountains, through which an uninterrupted navigation is maintained by steam-boats to La Chine, 9 miles above the city of Montreal. This canal renders the navigation of the Ottawa, between the Rideau and Montreal, complete. All the locks on the Carillon, and on the Chûte à Blondeau, are of the same size as on the Rideau; but on a part of the Grenville canal, which was commenced before the large scale was adopted, some locks, and a part of the cuttings, will only admit boats 20 feet wide; the locks on La Chine also are calculated for boats only 20 feet wide; the navigation for boats above 20 feet wide is interrupted at the Grenville Canal, and if large boats be used on the Rideau, and on the higher part of the Ottawa, all goods must be unshipped on arriving at the Grenville canal, and either be conveyed by portage, or removed to smaller boats.

The distance from Kingston, on Lake Ontario, to Bytown, where the Rideau river joins the Ottawa, is about 150 miles; from Bytown to the Grenville canal, 64 miles—total 214 miles, through the whole of which line, the locks and cuttings are of a size to admit steam-boats 134 feet long and 33 feet wide, and drawing 5 feet of water.

The Montreal communication with the Ottawa, by the canal between the former place and Lake St. Louis, at La Chine, near Montreal, is termed—

La Chine Canal—and is 28 feet wide at the bottom, 48 at the water line, has 5 feet depth of water, and a towing-path; the whole fall is 42 feet with the locks; the length being about 7 miles. It is the property of a company; was begun in 1821, and completed in 3 years, at a cost of £137,000, which was defrayed by the company, slightly assisted by government, in return for which aid the public service is exempt from toll.

The *Cornwall Canal* is 12 miles in length, and has 6 locks, which obviate the Long Sault rapids. The locks are on a large scale,

capable of admitting first-class steamers on the river, and its stone work is very massive.

By means of the great and useful works just mentioned, a large extent of country is opened up to the industry of British settlers: there is continuous steam-boat communication in Upper Canada for about 460 miles, viz., from the Grenville canal, on the Ottawa, to Niagara. Many other canals are in contemplation, some even commenced, such as that projected between the Bay of Quinté and Lake Huron, through Lake Simcoe, which will render us independent of the Americans on the Detroit river. The Thames is also to be made navigable for steam-boats, from Chatham up to the Port of London: and if railroads do not take the place of canals, there is little doubt of the greater part of Canada being, in a few years, intersected by them. The value of canals and steam navigation may be judged of from the fact, that, in 1812, the news of the declaration of war against Great Britain, by the United States, did not reach the post of Michilimackinac (1,107 miles from Quebec) in a shorter time than two months; the same place is now within the distance of ten days' journey from the Atlantic. A similar remark applies yet more strongly to railways. The route from Montreal to Kingston, 171 miles by the St. Lawrence, and 267 miles by the Rideau canal, *via* St. Am's, is now performed by a large, fast, and elegant class of steamers, passing down the Long Sault rapids to the Côte du Lac, and returning by the Cornwall canal. From the Côte du Lac to the Cascades there is 16 miles to be travelled by stage, thence to Lachine by steamer, and thence to Montreal 9 miles more by stage. The voyage may also be performed in a smaller class of steamers, which pass down *all* the rapids direct to Montreal, and return by the Rideau canal. The trip round occupies 8 days. About 30 small steamers and propellers are employed on this line. Recently a fine screw schooner, named the *Adventure*, belonging to the "Toronto and St. Lawrence Steam Navigation Company," went from Toronto to Montreal (170 miles) laden with freight, in 2½ days.

Western Canada was divided by the Act 8 Vic. c. 7, into 20 districts, which are again subdivided into 32 counties, for the more effectual legislative representation and the registration of property. The counties are laid out in townships, surveyed, and prepared for location.

86 DISTRICTS, COUNTIES, AND TOWNSHIPS OF W. CANADA IN 1848.

Districts.	Towns not Represented.	Counties, Ridings, and Cities.	Number of Townships in each County.	Population of Counties.	Population of Districts.
Bathurst . . .	Perth . . .	United { Lanark . . . Renfrew . . .	13 } 11 }	—	29,118
Brock . . .	Woodstock . . .	Oxford . . .	12	29,219	29,219
Colborne . . .	Peterborough . . .	Peterborough . . .	19	21,379	21,379
Dalhousie	Carleton . . . Bytown, town of . . .	10 —	19,215 6,275	25,520
Eastern	Stormont . . . Dundas . . . Glengarry . . . Cornwall, town . . .	4 4 4 —	11,471 10,723 15,005 1,454	38,653
Gore . . .	Brantford . . . Dundas . . .	Wentworth . . . Halton . . . Hamilton, city . . .	8 8 —	19,516 29,580 9,889	59,015
Home	York { North riding . . . South . . . East . . . West . . . Toronto, city . . .	11 4 4 5 —	17,050 21,033 24,530 20,236 23,503	106,352
Huron . . .	Goderich . . . Prescott . . .	Huron . . .	21	20,450	20,450
Johnstown	Grenville . . . Leeds . . . Brockville, town . . .	5 11 —	17,160 23,835 2,419	43,414
London	Middlesex . . . London, town . . .	17 —	41,963 4,584	46,547
Midland	Frontenac . . . United { Lennox . . . Addington . . . Kingstown, city . . .	15 3 6 —	17,311 6,484 13,135 8,369	45,249
Newcastle . . .	Port Hope . . . Cobourg . . .	Durham . . . Northumberland . . .	6 8	23,346 24,087	47,433
Ottawa	Preseott . . . Russell . . .	6 4	8,663 1,701	10,364
Niagara . . .	St. Catherine's . . .	Lincoln . . . Welland . . . Haldimand . . . Niagara, town . . .	7 8 9 —	17,774 17,732 12,719 3,100	51,325
Prince Edward	Prince Edward . . .	6	18,061	18,061
Simcoe . . .	Pictou . . .	Simcoe . . .	23	23,060	23,060
Talbot	Norfolk . . .	7	15,716	15,716
Victoria	Hastings . . .	12	23,133	23,133
Wellington . . .	Belleville . . .	Waterloo . . .	27	41,439	41,439
Western	Essex . . . Kent . . .	8 21	12,630 14,810	27,440
					723,247

The cities are Toronto, Kingston, and Hamilton; the incorporated towns, Bytown, Cornwall, Brockville, Prescott, Picton, Belleville, Coburg, Port Hope, Niagara, St. Catharines, London, Peterboro, Brantford, and Dundas.

The province of Western Canada has generally been viewed in three great *divisions*,—the (1) Eastern, (2) Central, and (3) Western. The *first* comprises the districts W. and N.W. of Montreal, lying between the St. Lawrence and Ottawa, and N. of the Ottawa. It includes the Eastern, Johnstown, Ottawa, and Bathurst districts. The Eastern district commences at the boundary line separating Eastern from Western Canada, and runs along the St. Lawrence, with part of Lake St. Francis (an expansion of the St. Lawrence) and the Long Sault rapids in front, until it reaches the adjoining district of Johnstown; inland it is bounded by the Ottawa district.

A range of elevated table-land commences at Lochiel and runs diagonally to the township of Matilda, whence it passes into the adjoining district.

The Eastern district is rich, well watered, cultivated, and fertile; some of it has been granted to discharged soldiers, a good deal to the children of New England loyalists, and the Canada Company possesses some lots in it.

The district in the rear of the one just described, and bordering on the S. shore of the Ottawa, from the Rideau river to the St. Lawrence, is termed the Ottawa district; it is but thinly settled; the lands are good, but low and marshy; along the Rideau canal cultivation is progressing, and as civilization increases, those very lands which are now considered useless, marshy soils, will become among the most fertile sections in the country.

The Johnstown district lies along the St. Lawrence to the westward of the Ottawa and Eastern districts; the Rideau canal passes through the centre. The soil is generally good, and it is advantageously situated. The districts on the N., bounded by the Ottawa, are those of Bathurst and Dalhousie.

The townships on the Ottawa, N.W. of Bathurst district, are in great demand: lumberers now go 250 miles beyond Lake Chat; and as the Ottawa has few rapids to the northward, towards its junction with Lake Nipissing, we may command a shorter communication between Montreal and Georgian Bay, and Lake Huron, than we now

have through Lakes Ontario, Erie, and the Detroit. A great part of this district is colonized by highland and lowland Scotchmen, whose prudent thrifty habits admirably qualify them for emigrants.

The next division, as we proceed westward, is the long and extensive tract formerly called the Midland District, but now subdivided into the Prince Edward and other districts. The base or southern extremity of this tract rests on the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario, in the parallel of 44° N., its northern boundary extends to $46^{\circ} 30'$, and is terminated on the N.E. by the Ottawa river.

The preceding districts form the eastern section of the province, and present generally a moderately elevated table-land, declining towards it numerous water-courses; the forest-timber is large and lofty, and of every variety. The soil, though moist and marshy in many places, is extremely rich, consisting chiefly of a brown clay and yellow loam, admirably adapted to the growth of wheat and every species of grain; the rivers and lakes are extremely numerous; of the former may be mentioned as the most remarkable, the Rideau, Petite Nation, Mississippi, and Madawaska, which have their sources far in the interior, generally to the westward, and which fall into the Ottawa: the Gannanoqui, Raisin, Catarqui, Napanee, Salmon, Moira, and part of the Trent discharge themselves into the Bay of Quinté and the St. Lawrence: these streams, besides fertilizing the lands through which they flow, afford, many of them, convenient inland communications, and turn numerous grist, carding, fulling, and saw-mills.

Besides numerous lesser lakes, there are the Rideau, Gannanoqui, White (Henderson's) Mud, Devil, Indian, Clear, Irish, Loughborough, Mississippi, Olden, Clarendon, Barrie, Stoke, Marmora, Collins, Blunder, Angus, and Ossineon. There are many roads throughout the section; the principal one is along the St. Lawrence, between Montreal and Kingston, traversing Cornwall and Lancaster, through which a line of stage-coaches run between the two provinces every lawful day, when steam-boats cannot travel. Kingston, the maritime capital of Western Canada, has to the westward the fine Quinté tract, in a prosperous state of cultivation.

Bytown, in Nepean, on the S. bank of the Ottawa, is most picturesquely situated.

Perth is a thriving village in the township of Drummond, on a branch of the Rideau, occupying a central position between the Ottawa and St. Lawrence. There are several other rising settlements.

The second or central division of Upper Canada embraces the large districts formerly called Newcastle and Home, with a frontage of 120 miles along Lake Ontario, in $41^{\circ} 30'$ N. lat., and stretching back northerly to the Ottawa, Nipissing Lake, and French river in $46^{\circ} 30'$ N. lat. By the Act 8 Vic. c. 7, this extensive tract has been separated into several districts. [See map of Western Canada.]

The soil throughout this large district is generally good: and though the population is numerous, compared with other districts, there is yet abundance of room for more settlers. It is well watered by the Rice, Balsam, Trout, and other lakes, and by the Otanabee rivers, part of the Trent, &c. The extensive territory adjoining Newcastle, with its N. W. extremity resting on Georgian Bay (an inlet of Lake Huron) is termed the Home District: it contains the capital of Upper Canada, Toronto (late York).

The central section of Upper Canada does not fall short in fertility, either of the east or west portions of the province: it is well watered, the Nottawasaga, Holland, Musketchishé, Beaver, Talbot, and Black rivers fall into Lake Simcoe; the Credit, Etobicoke, Humber, and Don rivers flow into Lake Ontario. There are excellent roads throughout the section.

The third section of the province, termed the Western, includes the Gore, Niagara, London, Western, and other districts; and, circumscribed as it is by the waters of the great Lakes, Ontario, Érie, and Huron, it may be considered a vast equilateral triangular peninsula, with its base extending from Fort Erie to Cape Hurd, on Lake Huron, measuring 216 miles, and a perpendicular striking the Detroit river at Amherstburgh, of about 195 miles in length, with an almost uniformly level, or slightly undulating surface, except a few solitary eminences, and a ridge of slightly elevated table-land in the Gore and Niagara districts, averaging 100 feet, and at some points approaching to 350 feet in height. The whole tract is alluvial in its formation, consisting chiefly of a stratum of black and sometimes of yellow loam, above which is found, when in a state of nature, a rich and deep vegetable mould. The substratum is a tenacious

grey or blue clay, sometimes appearing at the surface, intermixed with sand. Throughout the country, there is almost a total absence of stones or gravel, within arable depth, but numerous and extensive quarries exist, which furnish abundant supplies for building, &c. The forests are remarkable for the steady growth and the rich foliage of their trees: in several places immense prairies or natural meadows exist, extending for hundreds of miles, and with the vista delightfully relieved by occasional clumps of oak, white pine, and poplar, as if planted by man with a view to ornament. With a delicious climate stretching from 42° to 44° N. latitude, it is not to be wondered at that this section is the favourite of Western or Upper Canada.

The district to the southward of Gore, and termed Niagara, from being bounded to the E. by the river and cataract of that name, is one of the finest and richest tracts in the world, and most eligibly situate in a bight, between the magnificent sheets of water, Erie and Ontario.

The scenery throughout this part of Canada is extremely picturesque. Fort George, or Niagara, is the sea-port (if it may be so called) of the district; the fort is strong, and the neat town all bustle and gaiety, owing to the frequent arrival and departure of steam-boats, sloops, and other vessels.

The London district and its recent subdivisions have the advantage of a great extent of water frontier, along the shores of Lakes Erie and Huron, besides a large portion of the Thames, and the river Ouse on Lake Erie, and Aux Sables and Maitland on Lake Huron. London town is in the heart of a fertile country, on the banks of the fine river Thames, and will no doubt rapidly increase.

About the central part of the north coast of Lake Erie, colonel Talbot founded a settlement which reflects credit on his head and heart. Ever since the year 1802 this benevolent man has persevered in opening the fine country around him to the English emigrant. The Upper Canada Company have some of their land in this district. The scenery around, especially on the river Maitland, is more English-like than that of any other in America.

Extensive roads are now making in every direction, and the London district offers a most eligible spot for the consideration of the intending settler

CHAPTER III.

GEOLOGY, MINERALOGY, SOIL, AND CLIMATE.

IN briefly sketching the leading geological features of our Colonies, I beg to be understood as doing no more than registering such facts and observations as have yet been remarked by those who have made it their study to extend the limited knowledge as yet possessed concerning the surface of our globe. I would further beg to remind my readers, that the geology of a country not only indicates the quality of the soil, but exercises an important influence on the salubrity of the climate.

Following the arrangement adopted in the preceding chapter, I begin with the geology and mineralogy of Lower or Eastern Canada.

There are in America as manifest traces of an universal deluge as on the lofty Himalaya chain: boulder-stones are distributed in vast quantities all over the country; sometimes they are found rounded and piled in heaps of immense height, on extensive horizontal beds of limestone, as if swept there by the action of water; shells of various kinds, especially fresh-water elams, cockles, and periwinkles, are in abundance; of the latter, masses have been found several hundred feet above the level of Lake Ontario. In the vicinity of large rivers, and even in many instances remote from them, *undulating* rocks are seen, exactly similar to those found in the beds of rapids where the channels are waved. The wavy rocks are termed provincially, *ice shores*. On the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, detached boulder-stones of an enormous size (20 tons weight) are met with; they differ from those found inland, are very hard, of a blackish-grey colour, not veined, but with pointed particles of a brilliant appearance: how they came there it is difficult to judge, the rocks of the shores being composed of a slaty limestone.

The fossil organic remains are numerous, and consist of productæ, terebratulæ, orthoceratites, trilobites, and ennerinites; these are found on the surface or upper strata, but rarely below. These records of a former animal existence, distinct from any known in the present day, are intimately blended with the limestone in which they are entombed.

That the whole country has been subjected to some violent convulsion, subsequent to the Deluge, would appear from the singular contortions of the rivers, and the immense chasms in the mountains; from the indications of volcanic eruptions at St. Paul's Bay and north of Quebec; and also from the vast masses of alluvial rocks met with on the surface of the earth, which have the appearance of vitrification. The American continent generally, and the configuration and geology of Western Canada in particular, appear to me to afford indications of having but recently emerged from the ocean, and that at no very distant period of time (comparatively speaking), instead of a continent, there was only a succession of islands and rocks.

So far as we know, the geological structure of Canada exhibits a granitic region, accompanied with calcareous rocks of a soft texture, and in horizontal strata. The prevailing rocks in the Alleghany mountains are granite, which is found generally in vast strata, and sometimes in boulders between the mountains and the shore; graywacke and clay-slate also occur with limestone; various other rocks, usually detached, present themselves. The lower islands of the St. Lawrence are mere inequalities of the vast granitic region which occasionally emerges above the level of the river; the Kamouraska islands, and the Penguins in particular, exhibit this appearance; and in Kamouraska and St. Anne's parishes, large masses of primitive granite rise in sharp conical hills (one is 500 feet high), in some places with smooth sides and scarcely a fissure, in others full of fissures, and clothed with pine-trees which have taken root in them; the whole country appearing as if the St. Lawrence had at a former period entirely covered the land. At St. Roche, the post-road leads for more than a mile under a perpendicular ridge of granite 300 feet high. The banks of the St. Lawrence are in several places composed of a schistous substance in a decaying or mouldering condition, but still in every quarter granite is found in strata more or less inclined to the horizon, but never

parallel with it. In the Gaspé district numerous and beautiful specimens of quartz have been obtained, including a great variety of cornelian, and agate, opal, and jasper; indications of coal have also been traced. The limestone stone formation extends, according to a recent calculation, over 30,000 square miles; the dip is moderate, and the strata of limestone generally undisturbed.

The N. shore of the St. Lawrence from Quebec to its mouth, and round the coast of Labrador, offers a rich field for the mineralogist; much of the coast bordering on the gulf being primitive, or of the earlier formations. According to some observers, the N. coast below the St. Lawrence exhibits trap-rocks, clay-slate, various detached rocks, and granite occasionally; the latter being supposed to prevail in the interior of the country, forming the base of the Labrador mountains and the coast of Quebec. Cape Tournant (30 miles from Quebec) is a round, massive, granite mountain about 1000 feet high. The immediate bed of the fall of Montmorenci is a horizontal shelf of dark grey limestone, of the kind called primitive or crystalline. Except in the bogs or marshes, rocks obtrude on the surface in all quarters, and in many parts there exist deep fissures from 6 inches to 2 feet wide, which appear to have been split by the action of fire, or some volcanic shock. The Indians say these rents occasionally extend several miles in length, about a foot in breadth, and from 40 to 50 feet in depth: and frequently form dangerous pitfalls, being hidden from view by creeping shrubs.

These appearances seem to confirm the following graphic, but scarcely credible account of a terrific earthquake, contained in an old manuscript preserved in the Jesuits' College at Quebec:—"On the 5th of February, 1663, about half-past five o'clock in the evening, a great rushing noise was heard throughout the whole extent of Canada. This noise caused the people to run out of their houses into the streets, as if their habitations had been on fire; but instead of flames or smoke, they were surprised to see the walls reeling backwards and forwards, and the stones moving, as if they were detached from each other. The bells sounded by the repeated shocks. The roofs of the buildings bent down, first on one side and then on the other. The timbers, rafters, and planks cracked. The earth trembled violently, and caused the stakes of the pali-

sades and palings to dance, in a manner that would have been incredible, had we not actually seen it many places. It was at this moment every one ran out of doors. Then were to be seen animals flying in every direction; children crying and screaming in the streets; men and women, seized with affright, stood horror-struck with the dreadful scene before them, unable to move, and ignorant where to fly for refuge from the tottering walls and trembling earth, which threatened every instant to crush them to death, or sink them into a profound or immeasurable abyss. Some threw themselves on their knees in the snow, crossing their breasts and calling on their saints to relieve them from the dangers with which they were surrounded. Others passed the rest of this dreadful night in prayer; for the earthquake ceased not, but continued at short intervals, with a certain undulating impulse, resembling the waves of the ocean; and the same qualmish sensations, or sickness at the stomach was felt during the shocks as is experienced in a vessel at sea.

"The violence of the earthquake was greatest in the forests, where it appeared as if there was a battle raging between the trees; for not only their branches were destroyed, but even their trunks are said to have been detached from their places, and dashed against each other with inconceivable violence and confusion—so much so, that the Indians, in their figurative manner of speaking, declared that all the forests were drunk. The war also seemed to be carried on between the mountains, some of which were torn from their beds and thrown upon others, leaving immense chasms in the places from whence they had issued, and the very trees with which they were covered sunk down, leaving only their tops above the surface of the earth; others were completely overturned, their branches buried in the earth, and the roots only remained above ground. During this general wreck of nature, the ice, upwards of six feet thick, was rent and thrown up in large pieces, and from the openings, in many parts, there issued thick clouds of smoke, or fountains of dirt and sand, which spouted up to a very considerable height. The springs were either choked up, or impregnated with sulphur—many rivers were totally lost; others were diverted from their course, and their waters entirely corrupted. Some of them became yellow, others red, and the great river of St. Lawrence appeared entirely white, as far

down as Tadoussac. This extraordinary phenomenon must astonish those who know the size of the river, and the immense body of water in various parts, which must have required a great abundance of matter to whiten it. They write from Montreal that during the earthquake, they plainly saw the stakes of the picketing, or palisades, jump up as if they had been dancing; and that of two doors in the same room, one opened and the other shut of their own accord; that the chimneys and tops of the houses bent like branches of trees agitated with the wind; that when they went to walk they felt the earth following them, and rising at every step they took, sometimes sticking against the soles of their feet and other things, in a very forcible and surprising manner.

"From Three Rivers they write, that the first shock was the most violent, and commenced with a noise resembling thunder. The houses were agitated in the same manner as the tops of trees during a tempest, with a noise as if fire was crackling in the garrets. The shock lasted half an hour or rather better, though its greatest force was properly not more than a quarter of an hour; and we believe there was not a single shock which did not cause the earth to open either more or less.

"As for the rest, we have remarked, that though this earthquake continued almost without intermission, yet it was not always of an equal violence. Sometimes it was like the pitching of a large vessel which dragged heavily at her anchors; and it was this motion which occasioned many to have a giddiness in their heads, and qualmsiness at their stomachs. At other times the motion was hurried and irregular, creating sudden jerks, some of which were extremely violent; but the most common was a slight tremulous motion, which occurred frequently with little noise. Many of the French inhabitants and Indians, who were eye-witnesses to the scene, state, that a great way up the river of Trois Rivières, about eighteen miles from Quebec, the hills which bordered the river on either side, and which were of a prodigious height, were torn from their foundations, and plunged into the river, causing it to change its course, and spread itself over a large tract of land recently cleared; the broken earth mixed with the waters, and for several months changed the colour of the great river St. Lawrence, into which that of Trois Rivières disembogues itself. In the course of this violent convul-

sion of nature, lakes appeared where none ever existed before: mountains were overthrown, swallowed up by the gaping, or precipitated into adjacent rivers, leaving in their places frightful chasms or level plains; falls and rapids were changed into gentle streams, and gentle streams into falls and rapids. Rivers in many parts of the country sought other beds, or totally disappeared. The earth and the mountains were entirely split and rent in innumerable places, creating chasms and precipices whose depths have never yet been ascertained. Such devastation was also occasioned in the woods, that more than a thousand acres in our neighbourhood were completely overturned; and where but a short time before nothing met the eye but one immense forest of trees, now were to be seen extensive cleared lands, apparently cut up by the plough.

"At Tadoussac (about 150 miles below Quebec on the north side) the effect of the earthquake was not less violent than in other places; and such a heavy shower of volcanic ashes fell in that neighbourhood, particularly in the river St. Lawrence, that the waters were as violently agitated as during a tempest. (The Indians say that a vast volcano exists in Labrador.) Near St. Paul's Bay (about 50 miles below Quebec on the north side), a mountain about a quarter of a league in circumference, situated on the shore of the St. Lawrence, was precipitated into the river, but as if it had only made a plunge, it rose from the bottom, and became a small island, forming with the shore a convenient harbour, well sheltered from all winds. Lower down the river, towards Point Alouettes, an entire forest of considerable extent was loosened from the main bank, and slid into the river St. Lawrence, where the trees took fresh root. There are three circumstances, however, which have rendered this extraordinary earthquake particularly remarkable: the first is its duration, it having continued from February to August, that is to say, more than six months almost without intermission! It is true, the shocks were not always equally violent. In several places, as towards the mountains behind Quebec, the thundering noise and trembling motion continued successively for a considerable time. In others, as towards Tadoussac, the shock continued generally for two or three days at a time with much violence.

"The second circumstance relates to the extent of this earthquake, which we believe

was universal throughout the whole of New France, for we learn that it was felt from P' Isle Persée and Gaspé, which are situated at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, to beyond Montreal, as also in New England, Acadia, and other places more remote. As far as it has come to our knowledge, this earthquake extended more than 600 miles in length, and about 300 in breadth. Hence, 180,000 square miles of land were convulsed in the same day, and at the same moment.

"The third circumstance, which appears the most remarkable of all, regards the extraordinary protection of Divine Providence, which has been extended to us and our habitations; for we have seen near us the large openings and chasms which the earthquake occasioned, and the prodigious extent of country which has been either totally lost or hideously convulsed, without our losing either man, woman, or child, or even having a hair of their heads touched."

The extensive Ottawa region has been imperfectly explored. Mr. T. S. Hunt, chemist and mineralogist to the Provincial and Geological Survey, in an excellent report on the rocks along the Ottawa, dated April, 1848, says, that the limestone there is invariably highly crystalline, and sometimes very coarse-grained in its structure; at other times its texture is very fine, forming what is termed saccharoidal limestone; and occasionally the grain is so fine, as to yield a marble fit for the artist. The crystalline limestones of the Ottawa underlie unconformably the silurian rocks of the country, and are interstratified with sienitic gneiss. Near Perth, Dr. Wilson, who has enriched the mineralogical knowledge of the province, has discovered a locality of *apatite*, or phosphate of lime. It is found in a bed of coarse crystalline limestone, tinged of a flesh-red, and often embracing grains of pyroxene. The crystals are from half to one inch diameter. One crystal was found 12 inches in length and $9\frac{1}{2}$ in circumference. The *apatite* is translucent, of a delicate celandine green colour; the angles of the crystals are invariably rounded, and the terminations rarely distinct—looking, indeed, as if they had been half fused after their formation. The value of phosphate of lime in the shape of guano and bone powder is now fully recognized; several plants, especially wheat, largely extract it from the soil, and thus impoverish the land. Canada possesses in it an almost inexhaustible supply

of a fertilizing product for the exhausted wheat lands in the seigneuries.

Mineral corundum—the emery of the East Indies, so useful for polishing gems—is found in the neighbourhood of the Ottawa, as is also heavy spar, or sulphate of barytes in gneiss, either massive or in thin bladed crystals. This is very extensively used in Europe and America to mix with white lead, and also as a paint, under the name of permanent white. The crude material is worth from 8 to 10 dollars per ton. Various other semi-metallic products, and also copper, are found in this locality.

There are several "saline," "sulphuric," "sour," "gas," and warm and cold springs in the province. The Charlotteville sulphur spring yields 26·8 cubic inches of sulphuretted hydrogen gas to the gallon of water, while the strongest of the celebrated Harrowgate springs yields but 14 cubic inches. The "Tuscarora," or "sour" spring, is situated in the county Wentworth, Canada West, 9 miles S. of Brantford, and 3 miles S. of the bank of the Grand river. The water is of a very unusual character,—it is acid, sulphureous, and emits gas; sulphuric acid is the predominant ingredient.

The various mineralogical substances found in Eastern Canada, and capable of application to useful purposes, are the magnetic and specular oxydes of iron, bog iron ore, and iron ochre, chromic iron, wad or bog manganese ore, copper ore, gold, granite, and other descriptions of stone, suited for building; for mill and whetstones, flagstones, roofing slates, marble serpentine, soapstones, magnesite, dolomite, and common limestone, brick and potter's clay, and shellmarl. The only gold yet found was obtained in the vicinity of Sherbrooke; but the same general geological formation being traceable from Gaspé, through the United States to Georgia, the Carolinas, and Virginia, and even to Mexico,—it is not improbable that this precious metal may yet be found extensively in Eastern Canada.

There are inexhaustible quantities of fine granite in various localities; it presents an even mixture of translucent white quartz and opaque white feldspar, with a brownish-black mica, sparingly, but equally disseminated: it is capable of being readily split with wedges into rectangular blocks.

Shellmarl, so valuable for manure, is found in different places: on the land of Mr. Martin, to the east of Stanstead Plains, there is a bed of comminuted fresh water

shells, of 50 to 100 acres in extent. In another place the fresh water shells have a depth of several feet, and rest on a deposit of marine shells of the tertiary age. The soapstone, which is the same material as French chalk, mixed with oil, is now used for house painting. A decomposed talcose slate forms a white-wash instead of lime, and produces a dirty white, or light ash-grey colour. Soapstone is also used as a lining for ovens, furnaces, and fireplaces; and from its long retention of heat, a piece of soapstone heated in the fire, and wrapped in a blanket, is found useful in long Canadian winter journeys.

A bed of the silicious rock termed jasper, 6 feet in thickness, exists at Sherbrooke; it is cut into boxes, chimney ornaments, knife handles, &c. Large blocks of serpentine, resembling the celebrated *verd antique*, are found near Orford.

The geology of the country around the great lakes has been investigated by several distinguished English and American explorers.

Lake Superior.—The whole S. coast of this vast inland sea is stated by Mr. Schoolcraft, an American gentleman who formed part of a government expedition from New York, to be a secondary sandstone, through which the granite on which it rests, occasionally appears; chalcedony, cornelian, jasper, opal, agate, sardonyx, zeolith, and serpentine (all silicious except the last two), with iron, lead, and copper, are found imbedded in it. The sand hills W. of the Grand Marais, present to the lake, for 9 miles, a steep acclivity 300 feet high, composed of light yellow silicious sand, in 3 layers, 150, 80, and 70 feet thick; the last-mentioned uppermost, and like the lowest, pure, while the middle bed has many pebbles of granite, limestone, hornblende, and quartz. By the subsidence of the waters of Lakes Superior and Huron, occasioned, Mr. Lyell thinks, by the partial destruction of their barriers at some unknown period, beds of sand, 150 feet thick, are exposed; below which are seen beds of clay, enclosing shells belonging to fish of the very species which now inhabit the lakes.

Dr. Bigsby, who minutely examined Lake Superior, observed, that a red sandstone for the most part horizontal, predominates on the S. shore, resting in places on granite. Amygdaloid occupies a very large tract in the N. stretching from Cape Verd to the Grand Portage, profusely intermingled with

argillaceous and other porphyries, sienite, trappose-greenstone, sandstone, and conglomerates. Trappose-greenstone is the prevailing rock from Thunder Mountain westward, and gives rise to the pilastered precipices in the vicinity of Fort William. Part of the N. and E. shore is the seat of older formations, viz., sienite, stratified greenstone, more or less chloritic, and alternating with vast beds of granite, the general direction E., with a perpendicular dip.

Great quantities of the older shell limestone are found strewn in rolled masses on the beach, from Point Marmozee to Grand Portage; its organic remains are trilobites, orthoceratites, ennerinites, productæ, madreporæ, terebratulæ, &c. At Michipicoton Bay was found a loose mass of pitchstone porphyry, the opposite angle being trappose.

Lake Huron.—The almost uniformly level shores of Lake Huron present few objects of interest to the geologist: secondary limestone, filled with the usual reliquæ, constitutes the great mass of structure along the coast. Here and there are found detached blocks of granite, and other primitive rocks; the only simple minerals found by Mr. Schoolcraft were pieces of chalcedony in one place, and in another, crystals of staurolite. Around Saganaw Bay the primitive formation appears to approach nearer the surface; the secondary limestone then gives place to sandstone, which disintegrates, and forms sand banks and beaches, as on the sea shore.

With the exception of spots of sand opposite the mouth of Spanish and other rivers, the shore N. of Lake Huron is composed of naked rocks; but on the S.E., and at the naval station of Penetanguishine, there are several undulating alluvial platforms some hundred feet high, rounded into knolls, intersected by water-courses, and extending to the N.W. shores of Lake Simcoe, and, in fact, to Lakes Erie and Ontario.

Mr. A. Murray, in his elaborate geological survey of the shores of Lake Huron, says, that the older groups he observed, consist, firstly, of a metamorphic series, composed of granitic and sienitic rocks, in the forms of gneiss, mica slate, and hornblende slate; and, secondly, of a stratified series, composed of quartz rock, or sandstones, or conglomerates, shales, and limestones, with interposed beds of greenstone; and of the fossiliferous groups following these, six for-

mations are met with, which, in the New York nomenclature, come under the following designations:—1. Potsdam sandstone, 10 feet; 2. Trenton limestone, 320 feet; 3. Utica slates, 50 feet; 4. Loraine shales, 200 feet; 5. Medina sandstone, 103 feet; 6. Niagara limestones, including the Clinton group, 560 feet; total, 1,273 feet. At Cabot's head the thick bedded coralline limestone is 228 feet deep.

The Niagara limestones, as they are termed, extend over a large part of the southern portion of Drummond Island, and nearly the whole of Cockburn Island—eastward through the Grand Manatoulin. They cap the cliffs at Cabot's head, and can be traced thence to the southward. The fossils met with peculiar to the Niagara limestone are chiefly corals; some of the most massive beds appear to be entirely composed of coral of the most elaborate structure; one fallen mass was observed at Cabot's head, which appeared to be all coral, measuring 10 yards square on the surface, with an average thickness of 5 feet. Bivalve shells are met with abundantly, and univalves occasionally.

Lakes Huron, Michigan, and Superior, have evidently been at one time considerably higher than they are at the present day, and it would appear (as has been previously remarked) that the subsidence of their waters has not been effected by slow drainage, but by the repeated destruction of their barriers: indeed, these three lakes have evidently at some remote period formed a single body of water, as is evinced by their comparatively low dividing ridge, by the existence, in Batchewine Bay, of numerous rolled masses which are *in situ* in the N.W. parts of Lake Huron, and, among many other indications, by the very large boulders of the Huggewong granite, and the greenstone of Michipicoton, strewn in company with rocks of Lake Huron, over the Portage of St. Mary's; their original situation being at least 100 miles N. from where they are placed at present. Great alluvial beds of fresh water shells are found in the E. of Lake Huron, whose appearance argues them to be of post-diluvian formation, effected while the waters were still of immense height and extent.

Lake St. Clair.—The entrance of the Lake of St. Clair affords the first indication of the change in the geological formation, observed as we proceed through the lakes; pebbles of granite, hornblende rock, and silicious sand

are seen on the edge of the water, washed out from below the alluvion of the banks. According to the editor of an able American Review, this is probably very near the limits where the materials of the primitive formation show themselves beneath the secondary, nothing of them being seen on the American side of Lake Erie; but around St. Clair, masses of granite, mica slate, and quartz, are found in abundance.

Lake Erie.—The chasm, at Niagara Falls, affords a clear indication of the geology of the country. The different strata are—first, limestone—next, fragile slate—and lastly, sandstone. The uppermost and lowest of these compose the great secondary formation of a part of Canada, and nearly the whole of the United States, occupying the entire basin of the Mississippi, and extending from it between the lakes and the Alleghany ridge of mountains, as far eastward as the Mohawk, between which the slate is often interposed, as at Niagara, and throughout the State of New York generally. At Niagara, the stratum of slate is nearly 40 feet thick, and almost as fragile as shale, crumbling so much as to sink the superincumbent limestone; and thus verifying to some extent, the opinion that a retrocession of the falls has been going on for ages.

Lake Ontario.—Limestone, resting on granite. The rocks about Kingston are usually a limestone of very compact structure, and light blueish-grey colour—a fracture often approaching the conchoidal, a slight degree of translucency on a thin edge; and after percussion, emitting the odour of flint, rather than that of bitumen. The lowermost limestones are in general more silicious than those above them; and so frequently is this the case, that, in some places, a conglomerated character is given to the rock by the intrusion of pieces of quartz or hornstone. It is worthy of remark, that both angular and rounded masses of felspar rock, which usually underlies limestone, (or, if absent, is supplied by a substratum in which hornblende predominates) are imbedded and isolated in the limestone, demonstrating the latter to have been at one time in a state of fluidity.

The limestone formation is stratified horizontally, its dip being greatest when nearest to the elder rock on which it reposes, and by which it would appear to have been upraised, subsequently to the solidification of its strata; the thickness of which, like the

depth of the soil, varies from a few feet to a few inches. Shale occurs as amongst most limestones; and, in some places so intimately blended with the latter, as to cause it to fall to pieces on exposure to the atmosphere. The minerals as yet noticed, in this formation, are chert, or hornstone, basanite, chlorite, calcareous spar, barytes, sulphate of strontian, sulphuret of iron, and sulphuret of zinc. Pure granite is seldom or never found.

THE SOILS of Upper or Western Canada are various; that which predominates, is composed of brown clay and loam, with different proportions of marl intermixed; this compound soil prevails principally in the fertile country between the St. Lawrence and Ottawa; towards the N. shore of Lake Ontario it is more clayey, and extremely productive. The substratum throughout these districts is a bed of horizontal limestone, which in some places rises to the surface. The colour is of different shades of blue, interspersed with grains of white quartz. It is used for building, and is manufactured into excellent lime by an easy process of calcination; and greatly enriches and invigorates the soil when sprinkled over it. The limestone of Niagara differs from the foregoing in colour and quality, being grey, and not so easily calcined into lime. The Newcastle district lying between the upper section of the Ottawa and the St. Lawrence, is a rich black mould; which also prevails throughout the East Riding of York, and on the banks of the Ouse, or Grand River, and the Thames.

At Toronto the soil is fertile, and its alluvial nature is clearly demonstrated by the scarcity of stones for common use, which is also the case in some townships bordering Lakes Erie, St. Clair, and the Detroit. A light sandy soil predominates round the head of Lake Ontario.

The quantity of good soil in Canada, compared with the extent of the country, is equal to that of any part of the globe; and there yet remains location for several millions of the human race. The best lands are those on which the *hardest* timber is found—such as oak, maple, beech, elm, black-walnut, &c., though bass-wood when of luxuriant growth, and pine when large, clean, and tall, also indicate good land. Many of the *cedar swamps*, where the cedars are not stunted, and mingled with ash of a large growth, contain a very rich soil, and are calculated to form the finest hemp

grounds in the world. So great is the fertility of the soil in Canada, that 50 bushels of wheat per acre are frequently produced on a farm, where the stumps of trees, which probably occupy an eighth of the surface, have not been eradicated—some instances of 60 bushels per acre occur, and near York, in Upper Canada, 100 *bushels of wheat were obtained from a single acre!* In some districts wheat has been raised successively on the same ground for 20 years without manure.

The soil on the promontory where Quebec stands, is light and sandy in some parts, in others it is a mixture of loam and clay; beneath the soil a black, silicious slaty rock is everywhere met with, resting generally on a bed of granite. Above Richelieu Rapids, where the mountains commence retreating to the S. and N., the greater part of the soil of the low lands is apparently of alluvial formation, consisting of a light and loose blackish earth, ten or twelve inches in depth, lying on a stratum of cold clay.

The soil of Montreal island is generally alluvial, consisting in many places of light sand and loam, and in others of a stiff clay, on a horizontal stratum of limestone with animal remains: the substratum granite being intersected by black slaty rock, similar to that of Quebec.

Along the Ottawa there is a great extent of alluvial soil, and many new districts of fertile land are constantly brought into view.

MINERALOGY.—Among the mountains to the W. of the St. Lawrence, have been obtained iron felspar, hornblende, native iron ore, granite (white, grey and red), and a kind of stone very common in Canada, called limestone granite, it being limestone that calcines to powder, yet when fractured resembles granite: marble is in abundance, and plumbago of the finest quality. The iron mines of St. Maurice have long been celebrated, and the metal prepared with wood is considered equal if not superior to Swedish. Canada is rich in copper, lead, tin, cobalt, titanium, molybdenum, manganese, zinc ore, &c.

Copper abounds in various parts of the country; some large specimens have been found in the angle between Lakes Superior and Michigan. At the Coppermine river (Ontanagon 300 miles from the Sault de Ste. Marie), this metal, in a pure and malleable state, lies in connexion with a body

of serpentine rock, which it almost completely overlays: it is also disseminated in masses and grains throughout the substance of the rock. Henry and others speak of a rock of pure copper, from which the former cut off an 100 lbs. weight. Mr. Schoolcraft examined the remainder of the mass in 1820, and found it of irregular shape—in its greatest length 3 feet 8 inches, greatest breadth 3 feet 4 inches, making about 11 cubic feet, and containing, of metallic matter, about 2,200 lbs.; but there were many marks of chisels and axes upon it, as if a great deal had been carried off. The surface of the block, unlike that of most metals which have been long exposed to the atmosphere, is of metallic brilliancy.

The beautiful spar, peculiar to Labrador, whence it derives its name, has long been celebrated; some specimens are of an ultramarine, or brilliant sky-blue colour, others of a greenish-yellow, of a red, and of a fine pearly grey tint. Marble of excellent quality and of different hues, white, green, and variegated, is found in several parts of the country; and limestone, so useful to the agriculturist, almost everywhere abounds. According to the geological survey in 1847-48, it appears that the quantity of iron in the province is likely to prove very considerable. Considering the valuable deposits of this mineral already known in Marmora, Madoc, Bedford, Hull, &c., and the deflection of the magnet over regions of great extent, it is not unreasonable to suppose that provincial beds may exist of equal consequence with those of New York State.

The deposit of gypsiferous shale, so valuable for its gypsum salt, hydraulic lime, occupies nearly all that neck of land which separates Lake Ontario from Lake Erie, skirts the shore of the former lake through Niagara county, passes by Cayuga, York, and Paris, near Galt, on the Grand River, and turns northward towards Cabot's head on Lake Huron. The thickness of this deposit is estimated at 300 feet. About $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles below Cayuga, there is a hard solid bed of water lime, 30 feet thick. The gypsum, it appears, is deposited in detached masses, almost invariably assuming more or less of a conical shape. Adjacent to the gypsum, and indeed sometimes intermixed with it, are vast quantities of water lime. The beds worked in York and Paris are extensive, and produce excellent gypsum. This part of Canada, it is asserted, extending from Galt to Cayuga, cannot fail

to become, in time, from the mineral contents of the subsoil, one of the most valuable parts of the province.

An interesting discovery has been made of the existence of lithographic stone at Rama, on Lake Simcoe. It is of the best quality, and the supply is very large, which is the more satisfactory, inasmuch as this stone is only to be found in one other place in the world—Solenhofen on the Danube—and has hitherto commanded a monopoly price.

I have already adverted to the native copper found on the banks of Lake Superior, on the Coppermine river; iron is abundant in various parts of Western Canada, particularly at Charlotteville, about eight miles from Lake Erie; it is of that description which is denominated shot ore, a medium between what is called mountain and bog ore; the metal made is of a superior quality. The Marmora Iron works, about 32 miles north of the Bay of Quinté, on the river Trent, which are situated on an extensive white rocky flat, bare of stones, and were apparently in former times the bottom of a river; exhibit like many other parts of Canada, different ridges and water courses; the iron ore is extraordinarily rich, some specimens yielding 92 per cent.; it is found on the surface, requiring only to be raised—the requisite smelting materials of limestone and pine fuel abound in the vicinity. Magnetic oxyde, red oxyde, mountain, or lake ore, and other varieties are met with at this place. Black lead is found also at Marmora, on the shores of the Gannanoqui lake, and in the eastern division of Western Canada, where it is said some silver mines are known to the Indians; small specimens of a metal like silver have been found at Marmora, and titanium at Lake Superior.

Mr. Murray is of opinion that the N. shore of Lake Huron is a region of great mineral importance. Although the whole district is covered by a dense forest, still in its original wild condition several copper lodes have been discovered—some of decided value, others of considerable promise. The "Bruce mines," now being worked, on the main shore between French and Palladeau islands, 10 miles west of Thessalon Point, are very valuable.

Two mineral springs flow at Scarborough, 15 miles E. of Toronto. Above the Niagara Falls is a phenomenon, termed the Burning Spring, the water of which is in a constant state of ebullition, black, warm, and emit-

ting a portion of sulphuretted hydrogen gas sufficient to light a mill, which stood at the place, the gas yielding, when concentrated in a tube, a light and beautiful flame; in winter the water loses its burning properties. At the head of Lake Ontario there are several fountains, strongly impregnated with sulphur; the latter is found in substance collected into solid lumps of brimstone. The Indians speak of volcanoes in several parts of the province, particularly towards the Chippewa hunting-grounds.

Salt *licks* (springs) are numerous; one at Salt Fleet yielded a barrel of salt a day. Near the Moravian villages, on the river Thames, there are springs of petroleum, and a bituminous substance appears on several of the waters in the north-west country: on the above named river there is a quarry of soft free stone, of a dark colour, which the Indians hew out with their axes: it will not endure the heat of fire, but is useful for building. Near the Gannanoqui Lake is found a soft-soap stone, with a smooth oily surface. Gypsum is obtained in large quantities and of excellent quality on the Grand, or Ouse river. Potter's and pipe clay are frequent, and yellow ochre is occasionally met with.

Mr. Derottermund, chemist to the government geological survey of Canada, says that the waters of the St. Lawrence which flow past Montreal, are of two kinds, the one coasting along the left side of the river appertains to the Ottawa, and is of a brown colour, the other, flowing opposite to the city, comes from the great lakes and is of a fine blue colour. These waters run together for several leagues without intermingling, as may be observed in the Lake of Geneva, where the Rhône preserves in its passage through the lake its peculiar blue colour. The waters of both the St. Lawrence and the Ottawa, are very pure, differing from distilled water only by .002 or .003. The different specific gravity of the two waters may possibly be the cause of their not intermingling; both contain chlorides, sulphates, and carbonates, with bases of lime and of magnesia, but the St. Lawrence water holds in solution carbonate of lime, and is not therefore so well adapted for culinary purposes. The brown colour of the Ottawa water may be owing to the presence of a very minute quantity of marl or loam, or the two rivers being impregnated differently with saline matter, the rays of light are reflected differently, and the effect is the

more striking when the two waters are in contact and in large quantities.

Water taken from the river opposite Montreal, in July, 1845, Mr. Derottermund obtained the following comparison:—

	St. Lawrence.	Ottawa.
	grs.	grs.
Sulphate of Magnesia . . .	0.62	0.69
Chloride of Calcium . . .	0.38	0.60
Carbonate of Magnesia . . .	0.27	1.07
Carbonate of Lime . . .	—	0.017
Silica . . .	0.31	0.50
	1.58	2.877

There is a great difference observable in the transparency and purity of the waters of the great lakes. Those of the Ontario, Erie, and the southern parts of Michigan, are like other lake waters; but Huron, and the northern part of Lake Michigan, and it is said also Superior, contain waters of a degree of purity and clearness such as is seldom to be found elsewhere. The Huron waters are so transparent that the rays of the sun are said to pass through them as through the cloudless atmosphere, without meeting with any solid matter in suspense to obstruct or draw off their caloric. Hence the water on the surface, and that drawn from a depth of 200 fathoms, has been found of precisely the same temperature, viz. 56°. Whether the water in the lowest depths of lakes Superior and Ontario be salt or fresh, we cannot ascertain; for the greater density of the former may keep it always below, or there may be a communication with the ocean.

CLIMATE.—The temperature of the numerous regions of this vast country necessarily vary, according to their distance from the equator, and the contiguity of mountains and forests; but generally speaking the clear blue sky, the absence of fogs, and the consequent peculiar elasticity of animal fibre, indicate the salubrity of British North America. In Eastern Canada, the greater severity of the winter, is owing partly to its latitudinal position, and partly to the north eastern range of lofty mountains. In the more northern part of the province, the snow commences in November, but seldom lies many days on the ground before December, when the whole country is covered by it for several feet deep, nor does it entirely disappear until the beginning of May. The frost during this period is generally intense, with N.W. winds and clear atmosphere, during the greater part of the winter; but on a change of wind to the

southward and eastward, the weather becomes overcast, the atmosphere damp, with occasional dense fogs, and falls of snow, accompanied by a considerable rise in the thermometer, which usually ranges, during the months of December, January, February, and March, from 32° to 25° below zero, Fah. In 1790, mercury froze at Quebec. The temperature is often 60° Fah. below the freezing point— 20° is the average. The extreme cold may be imagined by the effect of the following experiment; bomb-shells were nearly filled with water, an iron plug was then driven into the fuse-hole by a sledge-hammer; when the water froze, the plug was forced out with a loud report, and was thrown with great velocity to a considerable distance; a plug $2\frac{1}{2}$ oz. weight was thrown 415 yards, the elevation of the fuse axis being an angle of 45° . When a plug with notched springs, permitting its expansion within the shell, was used, the shell nevertheless burst. Rocks, particularly those of the calcareous, schistous, and sand-stone order, are often rent as if with gunpowder, by the expansive force of intense frost. During the cold frosty nights, the woods creak as if 10,000 *buchérons* were at work among them.

As winter advances, one snow storm succeeds another till the face of the whole country is changed, every particle of ground is covered, the trees alone remaining visible, and the mighty river St. Lawrence is arrested in its course. The feathered tribes take flight, even the hardy crow retreats, and few quadrupeds are to be seen: some, like the bear, remaining in a torpid state, and others, like the hare, change their colour to pure white.

Instead of the pleasing variety which a Canadian summer presents, enabling the traveller to trace the course of noble rivers—to contemplate the fall of mighty cataracts or the busy hum of commerce in the passing vessels on the moving waters—the fine tints of the forests, and the anburn tinge of the ripening corn—the whistle of the plough-boy, and the lowing of the tended kine—nothing is now to be seen but one unvaried surface; no rivers, no ships, no animals—all one uniform, unbroken plain of snow, the average depth of which, unless where snow-storms or drifts have accumulated, is about 30 inches.

From Quebec to Montreal, the St. Lawrence ceases to be navigable, and serves as a road for sleighs and carriages. The carriage varies in shape according to the fancy of

the owner; sometimes like that of a phaeton, gig, chariot, or family coach: the body is placed on what are called *runners*, which resemble in form the irons of a pair of skates, rising up in front in the same manner, and answering somewhat the same purpose. The *high runners* are about eighteen inches long; the carriage is generally elevated about twelve inches above the snow, over which when level it glides with great ease, without sinking deep: but when *cahots* (from *cahoter*, to *jolt*, a word denoting narrow ridges with deep furrows), are formed in the snow, the motion is like rowing in a boat against a head sea, producing a sensation in one unaccustomed to it, something like sea-sickness. The carriage is often mounted with silver, and ornamented with expensive furs. The *traineaux*, *burline*, *cutter*, and *sleigh*, are all varieties of the *carriage*.

The dress of the Canadian now undergoes a complete change; the hat and *bonnet-rouge* are thrown aside, and fur caps, fur cloaks, fur gloves, are put in requisition, with worsted hose over as well as under the boots; those who take exercise on foot, use snow shoes, or *moccasins*, which are made of a kind of network, fixed on a frame, and shaped like a boy's paper kite, about 2 feet long, and 18 inches broad; these cover so much of the surface that even when the snow is softest the wearer sinks in it but a very few inches.

While the severity of the season is thus guarded against by the Canadians when out of doors, their habitations are also secured against the destructive power of intense cold. The walls of the houses are usually plastered on the outside, to preserve the stones from moisture, which during extreme frost, renders them liable to split; and the apartments are heated with stoves, which keep the temperature at a higher and more uniform rate than is done by our English fire-places.

And here it may be observed, that the result of intense cold (such as is felt in Canada is, if not guarded against, similar to that of intense heat; with this difference, that it is easier to guard against the effects of the one in North America than of the other in India. A cold iron during a Canadian winter, when tightly grasped, blisters and burns nearly in the same manner as a hot iron. The principle in both instances is alike—in the former, the rapidity with which the *caloric* or vital heat of the body passes from the hand into the cold iron.

destroys the continuous and organic structure of the part; in the latter, the caloric passes so rapidly from the hot *iron* into the hand, as to produce the same effect: heat, in both cases, being the cause; its passing *into* the body *from* the iron, or *into* the iron *from* the body, being equally injurious. For a similar reason the incautious traveller, in Canada, is *burnt* in the face by a very cold wind, and experiences the same sensation as if exposed to the blast of an eastern sirocco. Milton well describes the effects of extreme cold in the following lines:—

‘Beyond this flood, a frozen continent
Lies, dark and wild, beat with perpetual storms
Of whirlwind and dire hail, which, on firm land
Thaws not, but gathers heap, and ruin seems
Of ancient pile: all else deep snow and ice;
A gulf profound as that Serbonian bog
Betwixt Damiatra and Mount Casius old,
Where armies whole have sunk: the parching air
Burns froze, (frozen) and cold performs the effect
of fire.” PARADISE LOST, Book ii.

We also find in Virgil Georg. I. 93—

—— Boræ penetrabile frigus adurat.

Dogs become mad at Quebec in December and January when the cold is greatest; extreme cold and extreme heat tending equally to the propagation of hydrophobia. The term *frost-bitten* denotes the effect produced by cold, accompanied by a sharp biting wind. In such weather persons are liable to have the nose, toes, fingers, ears, or those parts where the circulation of the blood is scanty and slow, *frost-bitten*, without being made aware of the change by their own sensations; and it not unfrequently happens that they are first informed of their misfortune by a passing stranger, who observes the nose, for instance, becoming quite *white*, while the rest of the face is very red. In such a predicament, it is at first startling to see an utter stranger running up to you with a handful of snow, calling out “*your nose, sir: your nose is frost-bitten.*” and without further ceremony, rubbing without mercy at your proboscis. If *snow* be well *rubbed in* in due time, there is a chance of saving the most prominent feature of the face: if not, or if *heat* be applied, not only is the skin destroyed, but the nose, and a great part of the adjacent surface, are irrecoverably lost.

The inevitable result of the long-continued action of snow or cold on the animal frame is death, and that of the most pleasing kind;—at first a pleasing sensation of anguish is felt, to this succeeds an oppressive drowsiness which, if indulged in, is

surely fatal; the sufferer passing, impassible and unconscious, from the slumber of life into the cold sleep of death; the countenance remaining as calm and placid as if the pulse of existence still vibrated through the frame, while voluntary muscular power was suspended, under the temporary oblivion of sound repose. The pleasurable moments which intervene between the states of consciousness and unconsciousness on approaching sleep, and the indistinct visions and indescribable emotions then experienced afford us some idea of the mode in which the soporific influence of frost softens the iron grasp of the grim tyrant. It must not, however, be supposed that the severity of the winter is an obstacle to all out-door amusements, though it stops the navigation of the rivers and the cultivation of the soil; on the contrary, winter in Canada is the season of joy and pleasure: the cares of business are laid aside, and all classes and ranks indulge in a general carnival, as some amends for the toil undergone during the summer months. The sleigh or carriage of the proud *seigneur*, or humble *habitant*, is got ready all over the country—riding abroad on business or pleasure—visiting between friends, neighbours, and relatives commences—city and town balls, pic-nic country parties, where each guest brings his dish, are quite the rage; and, after dining, dancing, supping, and dancing again, the wintry morning dawn is ushered in, while the festive glee is yet at its height, and a violent snow-storm often blockades the *picnickers*, until broad daylight enables them to proceed in their carriages towards home—over the ice-bound rivers and waves of snow, the inconveniences of the moment being viewed as a zest to the more staid and fashionable *roués* of Quebec or Montreal.

Travelling over frozen rivers or lakes is, however, not unattended with real danger; the sleigh, its horses and passengers, having been not unfrequently instantly engulfed, and sucked beneath the ice; there being no warning of the danger until the horses are submerged, dragging the carriage and its inmates after them. Fortunately, the weak or thin places are in general of no great extent; and when the horses are found to be sinking, the passengers instantly leap out on the strong ice, seize the ropes, which, with a running noose, are placed ready for such an emergency on every sleigh horse’s neck, and, by sheer pulling, the animal is partially strangled in order to save his life; for if the

horse be allowed to kick and struggle, it only serves to injure and sink him: as soon, however, as the noose is drawn tight, his breathing is momentarily checked, strangulation takes place, the animal becomes motionless, rises to the surface, floats on one side, and is then drawn out on the strong ice, when, the noose being loosened, respiration recommences, and the horse is on his feet carrying away again in a few minutes as briskly as ever. This singular operation has been known to be performed two or three times a day on the same horse. The traveller on the frozen rivers, but more especially on the frozen lakes, also incurs great danger from the large rifts or openings which run from one side of the lake to the other, from one to six feet broad, causing, at some distance from the crack, a shelving up of the ice to the height of several feet, in proportion to the breadth of the fissure. The sleigh drivers, when they see no other mode of passing, or of escape, make the the horses endeavour to leap the chink at full gallop, with the sleigh behind them, at the imminent risk of being engulfed in the lake.

A snow-storm is another source of danger to the American traveller; and indeed a snow-storm on land is as terrific as a hurricane at sea, while this peculiar disadvantage attends the traveller on *terra firma*, that he has no land-marks, to supply the place of the mariner's compass, and guide him in his trackless path; the excited intellect becomes rapidly bewildered, memory fails, and a road often travelled, and in calmer moments well known, is utterly lost in the remembrance of the unfortunate traveller. The heavily-falling snow is accompanied by a violent gale of wind, which drifts the lighter particles along with great velocity, forming in its progress innumerable eddies according to the inequalities of the surface, and raising as it were light clouds from the earth, which obscure and confuse every thing. This drift, which the Canadians call *La Poudre*, consists of minute but intensely frozen particles of snow, which, whirled by the impetuosity of the hurricane, force their way through the smallest window or door chink, leaving large heaps of snow on the floor in a few hours, as we sometimes experience on a much smaller scale in England.

The horses in the sleighs or carriages have small bells hung on the harness, the sound of which is cheering to the animal as well as to his master: in a frosty night, sound is

rapidly and extensively conveyed to an anxious and listening ear, and the tinkle of the distant sleigh bell may well be thought musical.

Below Quebec the St. Lawrence is not frozen over, but the navigation is impeded by the large masses of ice which are floated down the river from the upper districts, and kept in motion by the combined action of the current at the narrows opposite Quebec, and the diurnal influence of the ocean tides.

Crossing the river at these times, though a dangerous enterprise, is one constantly undertaken. The period chosen is high water, when the large masses of ice are almost stationary; the canoe is then launched, the people being provided with ropes, boat-hooks and paddles; a sheet of ice being reached the passengers jump on it, drawing the canoe after them, until they come to another opening, when they again launch their fragile conveyance, which is pushed towards another sheet of ice, and so on, the greatest dexterity being necessary to avoid being crushed to pieces, canoe and all, between huge masses of ice.

At distant intervals, about once in ten years, the St. Lawrence is completely frozen across at Quebec, when a grand rejoicing or jubilee takes place; booths are erected; sleigh-racing, skating, driving, &c., are performed on a smooth sheet of ice, which for eight miles appears like a mirror, and the *pont* (as it is termed) enables the country people from the opposite side to bring their provisions, &c., to market in carriages without the difficulty and danger of crossing the half-frozen river in their slight canoes.

As soon as the winter sets in, the farmer is obliged to house all his cattle, sheep, and poultry; those destined for winter use are killed before they lose any of the fat acquired during the summer and autumn. No salt is necessary to preserve them; they are exposed to the frost for a short time, when they become as hard as ice, and in this state, after being packed in casks or boxes with snow, are preserved from the external air. At the end of four or five months they are perfectly good, and are thawed when required for use with *cold* water—*warm* water would render the provisions quite useless. Fish is also preserved in a similar manner, and, it is stated, may be restored to life four or five days after, if immediately frozen when taken out of the water.

During the month of April, the influence of the sun on the ice and snow begins to be

felt; in the middle of April spring commences at Montreal; and three weeks after, the snow has all disappeared in the neighbourhood of Quebec; and the ice which had been accumulating in the great lakes and rivers connected with the St. Lawrence, rushes down in vast masses towards the ocean, which again dashes it inland with the impetuosity of the gulf tides, presenting an extraordinary scene: sometimes the St. Lawrence is choked up from bank to bank with masses of ice from 4 to 500 yards in diameter; the sea-tide and land-current forces these on one another, and break them into small pieces, forming fantastic groups of figures, high above the surface of the river. The navigation of the river is not said to be completely open until the second week in May, when the ice-masses have all disappeared; vessels attempting to get out of, or to enter the St. Lawrence while the ice is forming or disappearing, are frequently lost, by being embayed, and crushed to pieces during a severe storm, when the running rigging, and even the rudder become immovable. It is worthy of notice, that so large a river as the St. Lawrence, in lat. 47° N., should be shut up with ice as early, and remain as long closed (5 months) as the comparatively small river Neva, in lat. 60° N.

A singular meteorological phenomenon occurs in the midst of a Canadian winter, when the mercury is far below the freezing point; suddenly, in the course of a single day, (in January generally), it ascends 2° or 3° above the point of congelation, the weather instantly changing from the greatest degree of cold to a complete thaw. The streets are inundated with the melted snow, the roads become soft, and carriaging on the river dangerous; the thaw sometimes lasts for 10 days, when intense frost again commences, producing a beautiful effect on the trees, by an incrustation of ice, which extends from the trunk to the smallest branch.

The severest winters are generally accompanied by N.E. winds, which convey from Labrador and the icy Pole increase of snow and frost; but the prevailing winds throughout the year are westerly; in the winter, cold, sharp, and dry airs blow from the N. and N.W., and in the summer genial breezes come from the W. and S.W. The E. wind blows for a few days in each month, and in the spring, during April and May, for a longer period. The aurora borealis, or northern lights, are extremely brilliant, and

assume various forms—at one time like gorgeous floating standards, at another as vast crescents, changing into magnificent columns or pillars of resplendent light, which move in majestic grandeur from the horizon towards the zenith, until the whole firmament becomes splendidly irradiated—these suddenly vanishing, and as suddenly reappearing under new forms and colours, and with varied brilliancy, until they entirely disappear. It is said by some, that a rustling like that of silk is heard during a fine aurora.

Summer commences about the middle of May, and is usually ushered in by moderate rains and a rapid rise in the meridian heat, though the nights are still cool; but in June, July, and August, the heat becomes great, and for a few days oppressive, the thermometer ranging from 80° to 95° in the shade; but the average heat during the summer seldom exceeds 75° .

A good idea of the spring of the year may be formed from the following Agricultural Report for Eastern Canada in April and May, by Mr. W. Evans of Côté St. Paul:—"Early in April well-prepared soils are in good order to receive the seed, and about the 10th or 12th wheat sowing very generally commences. The pastures should now be good, and will soon improve the condition of the cattle. Dairy produce abundant in the market, and the prices moderate. Notwithstanding the shortness of the seasons that farmers have here to work in the fields, Canada is by no means unfavourable for farming, and in ordinary seasons, with the seed got in early, on soils well prepared, a good crop of all kinds of grain, wheat particularly, may generally be obtained. With command of labour, which continued emigration will give, the farmer has only to employ double the number of hands for the working season, while the days are long and fine, that he would have required in England for the whole year, and he may get all his work done, perhaps at not a greater expense, and the labourer will have his summer's earnings to take to the woods (if he has a family), to commence farming on his own account, which should be the ultimate aim of all the labouring class of emigrants, if they expect to secure future independence for themselves and their families. At this period the country is charming; after a long and gloomy winter, the earth is again renovated—new life restored to plants—the trees dressed in leaves and blossoms—the fields in beautiful green, and all nature appears to rejoice."

That the climate of Canada has undergone a change is shown by the mean height of the thermometer at 8 A.M., for the month of July in the following years:—1799, 66.87; 1802, 68.35; 1806, 65.96; 1809, 60.60; 1812, 62.16; 1814, 60.15; 1816, 58.65; 1818, 61.00. Since 1818 the change is stated to be considerable, partly owing to the motion of the magnetic poles, and the forest-clearing necessary for the cultivation of the country; the effect is mainly observable in the lengthened duration of summer, and consequent shortening of winter. A wide discrepancy marks the temperature of corresponding latitudes in Europe and America; the inhabited parts of the two Canadas lie between 42° and 48° of N. lat., and should therefore enjoy the temperature of central and southern Europe, if influenced merely by their distance from the equator and pole; but it is far otherwise; yet when we remember that the Tiber was formerly frozen annually—that snow was usual at Rome—that the Euxine sea, the Rhône and Rhine were almost every year covered with a strong sheet of ice, we may look forward to modifications of the climate of Canada.

Among the meteoric phenomena observed in Canada, I may here record that singular one, termed the "*dark days*," which occurred in October, 1785, and in July, 1814. These appearances (as described in the transactions of the Quebec Literary and Horticultural Society), consisted of a dismal pitchy darkness at *noon-day*, continuing about ten minutes at a time, and frequently repeated at twelve, two, three, and four o'clock, the intervals being partially relieved by vast masses of clouds streaked with yellow, driving athwart the darkened sky, accompanied by sudden gusts of wind with much thunder, lightning, and rain, the latter extremely black, and in 1814, mixed with ashes and black powder. On the last occasion, when the sun could be seen, it appeared of a bright red colour. The Indians account for this phenomenon by ascribing it to a volcano in Labrador; and Mr. Gagnon has placed on record that he witnessed at St. Paul's Bay, in the Saguenay country, in 1791, the flames of a vast volcano, during the month of December, accompanied by violent shocks: flames mixed with dark smoke were thrown to a great height, causing the whole atmosphere to appear one mass of fire,—which was in strange contrast with the surrounding snow.

During the summer months there is a

great deal of electric fluid in the atmosphere, and the vividness of the lightning and loudness of the thunder are sometimes appalling in the extreme. As a general rule, it may be observed that the prevailing winds (*viz.* N.E., N.W., and S.W.) have considerable influence on the temperature of the atmosphere and state of the weather. The S.W. (the most prevalent) is generally moderate, and accompanied by clear skies; the N.E. and E. bring continued rain in summer, and snow in winter; the N.W. is dry, cold, and elastic, owing to the ice-bound region from which it springs. Winds from due N., S., or W., are not frequent, and the direction of the tide, which is felt for nearly 60 miles above Quebec, often causes a change in the atmospheric current.

As Canada becomes cleared, and its swamps drained, its climate will probably become milder, and its inhabitants enjoy as salubrious an atmosphere as we do in England; the heat of summer is now less relaxing, and the cold of winter more bracing than those of New York, or indeed any part of the United States. As regards agriculture, the lengthened winter of Lower Canada is certainly not on the whole unfavourable. The effect of snow covering the earth for a long period, is well known to be beneficial, and the fall of deep snow in a country where frost prevails from 5 to 6 months, is one instance among many, of the merciful dispensations of Providence; had it been otherwise, the continued action of cold on the earth would have so greatly deprived it of its natural caloric, that the heat of even the hottest summer would be insufficient to restore the warmth necessary to the germination of plants, and the ascension of the sap in vegetables. The natural heat of the earth is about 42° Fah., but water, when cooled down to 32° Fah., is converted into snow and ice; by this means, the rivers and the land, with their myriads of fish and insects, are protected by a dense crust of ice, which, being a non-conductor, preserves them from the influence of the immense volume of cold atmosphere, which is continually pressing from the polar regions towards the equator. Thus, that very coating of snow, which seems so chilling, is in fact a warm garment for the earth; and when the sun returns to gladden it, and the north winds are driven back to their icy region, the latent caloric of the earth begins to be developed, and the snow melts, and percolates with rapidity the stiffest soils, rendering them

peculiarly friable, and adapted to the immediate labours of the husbandman,—it is a singular fact, that for a month or six weeks before the apparent termination of the Canadian winter, vegetation is in active process even on the surface of the earth, beneath a covering of snow several feet thick.

At Chicoutimi, N. of Ha-Ha Bay, on the Saguenay, the river closes about Christmas, and the ice breaks up about the middle of April. Potatoes have been planted early in May, and though their tops were frost killed in the middle of September, yet when taken up in the latter end of October, they yielded 30 bushels for one. Indian corn, oats, barley, all the common garden vegetables, and even melons, ripen on the Saguenay in the open ground.

Western Canada.—In an extent of country, lying between 42° and 50° of N. lat., the climate is necessarily various; in the settled townships it is generally delightful, neither so cold in winter as in Eastern Canada, nor so hot in summer as at New York; in the Newcastle district, between 44° and 45° , a man may work in the woods, the whole winter, with his coat off, as in England; and the summer heat is tempered by a cool breeze, which sets in from the S.W. about 10 a.m., and lasts generally to 3 or 4 p.m. In summer, the wind blows two-thirds of the season from the S.W., *i. e.* along the great lakes.

In spring and autumn, this wind brings a good deal of moisture with it. The N.W., which is the most frequent in winter, is dry, cold, and elastic; the S.E. soft, thawy, and rainy: the wind seldom blows from W. or S., more rarely still from the N. Of course, changes of wind are accompanied by corresponding alterations of weather; the most sudden are to the N.W., followed by weather clear and cold for the season—almost every thunder shower clears up with this wind: the longest storms of rain, and the deepest falls of snow, are usually accompanied by easterly winds. It may be generally remarked, that the human frame, in all climates, is more sensibly affected by the quarter whence the wind blows, than by the mere height of the thermometer,—humidity with cold or heat rendering the extremes of each less endurable. The annexed table affords a comparative view of the climate of Western and Eastern Canada, throughout the year. Western Canada, lat. 42° —Eastern Canada, lat. 45° . The great lakes moderate the cold of Eastern Canada.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE CLIMATES OF WESTERN AND EASTERN CANADA.

THERMOMETER—FAHRENHEIT.

Months.	W. CANADA.			E. CANADA.		
	Max.	Min.	Mean.	Max.	Min.	Mean.
January . . .	48	—20	18.17	33	—23	11.14
February . . .	50	8	23.87	40	—29	10.69
March . . .	52	0	26.94	47	—26	12.13
April . . .	83	40	59.70	81	9	48.91
May . . .	92	40	67.32	92	30	67.84
June . . .	97	57	77.51	95	55	76.34
July . . .	103	60	81.37	103	62	82.23
August . . .	99	55	73.24	100	58	74.7
September . . .	92	33	64.45	90	30	59.16
October . . .	74	28	48	55	9	32.24
November . . .	54	10	34.53	40	—13	17.44
December . . .	41	—2	25.43	43	—21	11.94
For the year . . .	73.8	25.72	48.37	68.25	11.75	42.1
For the months June, July, & August . . .	96.66	57.33	77.37	99.33	58.33	77.54
Winter months . . .	46.33	—4.67	22.49	38.66	24.33	11.25

WEATHER.

Month.	W. CANADA.			E. CANADA.		
	Clear.	Rain or Snow.	Cloudy.	Clear.	Rain or Snow.	Cloudy.
January . . .	days. 13	days. 8	days. 9	days. 23	days. 4	days. 4
February . . .	11	10	7	21	3	5
March . . .	21	8	2	25	3	3
April . . .	23	3	4	25	3	3
May . . .	22	5	4	23	4	4
June . . .	22	8	3	26	2	2
July . . .	25	3	3	26	3	2
August . . .	21	5	5	16	12	2
September . . .	21	5	4	18	8	5
October . . .	13	8	9	16	5	8
November . . .	11	14	7	14	7	10
December . . .	11	12	8	23	2	5
Total . . .	214	89	62	253	56	53

Note.—There were, during the year, in Western Canada, 34 days snow and 55 rain; and in Eastern Canada, 21 snow and 35 rain.

The climate of Toronto, Western Canada, may be judged of from the following facts—the result of a series of observations made for several years on the shore of Lake Ontario, in $43^{\circ} 39'$ N. $79^{\circ} 36'$ W. The writer describes the climate on the shores of Lake Ontario as being in many respects genial. The temperature, proceeding westward, is sensibly much milder, and this effect is still further increased by the presence of so vast a body of water, mitigating both the heats of summer and the cold of winter. Even a very short distance inland the difference in both respects is plainly perceptible to the most superficial observer. The early frosts which occasionally do so much damage, are here comparatively harmless. What is a storm of rain on the shore of the lake is frequently snow but a few miles further

back from it. The snow likewise disappears much sooner in the spring, and the average depth is considerably less. In short, it may fairly be said, that to an emigrant from the British Isles to Western Canada, the change is no less surprising than agreeable. There is a clearness, a dryness, a brilliancy in the atmosphere truly delightful after the raw drizzling rains, the fogs and moisture of Europe, while the extremes of temperature are never of long duration, tempered by the fresh gales sweeping the surface of the magnificent Ontario. And if it be admitted that the weather of spring is occasionally variable and unpleasant, this is more than compensated for by the brightness and beauty of the summer and autumn, often extending far into November. There is no doubt but that spring commences at least a month or six weeks earlier than in Quebec and Montreal; that the extremes, and likewise the sudden variations of temperature, are of far less intensity. Winters in Upper Canada sometimes occur with scarcely any snow at all, and a very moderate degree of cold—a fact never noticed in the Lower province—and the further westward we proceed, the more favourable is this difference.

The mean annual temperature for several years has been—

1831 ... 40.68	1836 ... 40.03	1842 ... 44.10
1832 ... 42.20	1837 ... 40.98	1843 ... 42.84
1833 ... 42.40	1838 ... 42.50	1844 ... 44.60
1834 ... 43.30	1840 ... 43.70	1845 ... 44.30
1835 ... 42.0	1841 ... 44.07	

A very inadequate idea, however, of a climate like that of the Canadas is to be formed from the annual or monthly means alone. In these results we lose sight, in a great measure, of the most striking feature, viz.: the sudden and great fluctuations of temperature to which it is subject; for it is evident that the same mean may be produced under very different circumstances—a moderate uniformity of temperature or high extremes balancing one another. Dr. Kelly observes, that, “perhaps there is no part of the globe where the range of the thermometer is greater than in Canada. In the instance given above, the fall in the course of 36 hours was 59 degrees. In winter, changes of a still greater extent, in the course of a day, are not unfrequent. It has been known at Quebec to be from 36° to 40°, with rain during the day, and to fall during the succeeding night many degrees below zero.” These variations are no doubt

less severe as we proceed westward, but still sufficiently rigorous, and certainly constitute the most disagreeable part of the climate. A change of 30 degrees in 24 hours, or less, is very common; and the variation has amounted to 43 degrees. The greatest recorded is that of December, 1834. On the noon of the 13th, the weather was fair, with a fresh southerly breeze. In the evening the wind went to N.W., and at 8 A.M. on the 14th, the mercury was at zero, it having been 43 degrees on the previous noon.

The most evident changes occur generally in the early months of winter, and they become less as the summer advances.

The annual range of the thermometer was in the years—

	Range		Range
1831 ... 16 to 84	100	1838 ... 4 to 89	93
1832 ... 20 “ 84	101	1840 ... 11 “ 84	95
1833 ... 10 “ 86	96	1841 ... 2 “ 92	92
1834 ... 2 “ 90	92	1842 ... 5 “ 87	82
1835 ... 15 “ 84	99	1843 ... 6 “ 92	98
1836 ... 20 “ 85	105	1844 ... 8 “ 85	93
1837 ... 9 “ 82	91	1845 ... 2 “ 94	96

Hence, mean annual range, between the hours of 8 A.M., and 12 = 95°.

	Mean Monthly Range.	Mean Daily Range.		Mean Monthly Range.	Mean Daily Range.
January . . .	51 . . .	29	July	31 . . .	21
February . .	50 . . .	31	August . . .	30 . . .	20
March	47 . . .	27	September .	29 . . .	24
April	45 . . .	26	October . . .	28 . . .	23
May	40 . . .	23	November . .	41 . . .	22
June	31 . . .	21	December . .	41 . . .	27

The above exhibits the mean variation monthly and daily. The month of February is the coldest in the year, July the hottest; the former likewise subject to the greatest extremes. Mean of October approximates nearly to the annual mean. Taking the number of days in the several years up to the freezing-point, we have as follows:—

1831 ... 113	1836 ... 140	1842 ... 98
1832 ... 112	1837 ... 124	1843 ... 126
1833 ... 115	1840 ... 101	1844 ... 102
1834 ... 116	1841 ... 104	1845 ... 105
1835 ... 100		

The mean of which is 112, being the average number of days of frost at 8 A.M. during the year.

The mean annual temperature of the central parts of England, from October to March, is usually 42°. In December, January, and February, it is generally below 40°. In July and August the range is from 62° to 65°. The mean annual temperature, noon and night, of the central part of England is about 50°.

Days of Rain and Snow in Western Canada.

Months.	Average for the year 1845.			
	Temperature.	Days of Rain.	Depth of Rain.	Days of Snow.
January	23.8	3	0.27	8
February	24.6	2	0.12	4
March	33.7	3	0.57	6
April	42.7	11	1.94	3
May	51.4	6	1.63	—
June	62.4	9	2.51	—
July	67.2	5	1.00	—
August	67.0	8	1.74	—
September	58.0	15	4.38	—
October	46.5	11	2.32	1
November	35.0	5	0.55	5
December	19.6	1	0.00	9

Observations for nine years' record—

in	No. of days of Rain.	Depth. Inches.
1834	96	22.96
1835, for 11 months	70	19.79
1836, for 12 months	71	19.69
1837 " "	82	25.51
1841 " "	75	21.64
1842 " "	89	26.49
1843 " "	74	24.08
1844 " "	92	19.27
1845 " "	79	16.56

The mean annual depth of the above is 22.02 inches, which agrees with several places in England (London, 20; York, 22; Aberdeen, 23); but the manner in which the same quantity is distributed varies materially. In Canada it falls heavily, and for a short time, the reverse of which is the case in the British Isles, for it is stated by an eminent meteorologist, that it has been found, from a long series of observations, to rain every other day in the latitude of London. The rainy season, moreover, in Canada (although rain falls sometimes more or less during the winter) may be considered as confined to the period between the middle of April and the end of November, four or five months of winter being nearly without it altogether.

The winter of Western Canada, although not even at present severe, is becoming milder every year, as cultivation extends and drainage increases. It is a great error to suppose that the great lakes, Ontario, &c., are frozen over at any time: they are always open in the centre, frequently exhibiting a beautiful and striking phenomenon during the inclement season. By reason of the water being warmer than the circumambient atmosphere, an evaporation resembling steam may be observed ascending in every variety of shape, in clouds, columns, and pyramids, from the vast surfaces of Lakes Ontario,

Erie, Huron, and Superior, as if from so many boiling cauldrons.

The chain of shallow lakes which run in an E. and S.E. direction from Lake Simcoe towards the midland district, are seldom frozen more than an inch thick until about Christmas, and are thawed again before April.

The earth in Upper Canada is not generally frozen at a greater depth than from 12 to 18 inches, and the snow rarely acquires a greater thickness than from 18 inches to 2 feet, unless when drifted. It is very seldom that the roads are permanently fit for the use of the *sleigh*, or *carriole*, before the second week in January, and they are again broken up by the end of March: this shows the duration of sharp frosts and snow: in fact, a labouring man may, if he chooses, work at all times out of doors: whereas in Eastern Canada, at the more northerly stations, it would be impossible so to do.

There are several remarkable phenomena in the climate of Western Canada, hitherto unaccounted for—one of these is termed—

The *Indian Summer*, which almost uniformly commences and terminates in the month of November, when the weather is delightfully mild and serene, with a misty hazy atmosphere, though the haze is dry and soft, appearing to rest chiefly on the horizon. In the evenings of the *Indian Summer*, the sun generally goes down with a crimson flush on the western heavens: the temperature is exceedingly grateful; and the feathered tribes, who instinctively seek a southern region on the approach of the rigorous winter of the north, avail themselves of this delightful season to prosecute their journey. Accordingly, at this time, the rivers and lakes of Western Canada may be seen covered with innumerable flocks of wild fowl.

Another very extraordinary meteorological phenomenon is that which may be denominated the *tertian intervals*. The greatest intensity of frost is always *remittent* at the end of the *third day*, when several days of mild weather succeed; thus the extreme severity of the winter is never felt more than two or three days at a time.

Owing perhaps to the distance from the sea, and the absence of saline particles in the atmosphere, the climate is so dry, that metals rust but slightly by exposure, even on board vessels navigating lakes. Hence iron bolts are used in ship building, instead of copper.

The people think, and the observation of meteorologists appears to justify the popular opinion, that when the lake-waters rise to a great height, the season is unhealthy. In 1815, the waters of Lake Ontario, which had been annually rising, attained a greater elevation than they had done for 30 years, and the weather was unusually trying.

On the whole, the climate of Eastern and Western Canada is favourable to health and longevity. In the Niagara, and other districts of Eastern Canada, peaches arrive at great perfection in the open air. The energy of the inhabitants is one indication among many of the salubrity of the atmosphere.

CHAPTER IV.

POPULATION OF E. AND W. CANADA, CLASSIFICATION, CHARACTER, DIVISION OF RACES, GOVERNMENT, LAWS, RELIGION, EDUCATION, THE PRESS, CRIME, &c.

CANADA, like other portions of the American continent, was densely peopled by a copper-coloured race, to whom the term Indians was given by the discoverers of the "New World." The establishment of European Colonies, and the wars waged between the early English and French settlers in Canada, led to the rapid destruction of the aborigines, who being neither agricultural or nomadic, and living solely by the produce of the chase and fishing, were driven into the back settlements as civilization extended. The Abenagua, Algonquin, Iroquois, Missisagna, and Huron Indians, occupied the districts from below Quebec to the country around lakes Erie and Huron.

We have no means of ascertaining the numbers of the Indians then inhabiting Canada. Charlevoix, in 1721, estimated the number of some of the Algonquin tribes at 6,000 souls; but they were then diminishing daily under the baneful effects of intoxicating liquors, and by diseases introduced from Europe. Some of the Iroquois tribes with whom the French waged several disastrous wars, were estimated by Charlevoix, in his *History of New France*, vol. iii. p. 203, at 60,000 souls.

The Indian population remaining in 1828 was estimated by Mr. McTaggart (*Three Years in Canada*) at 43,000, viz., 15,000 in Eastern Canada, and 28,000 in Western Canada.

The British Government, in fulfilment of previous engagements, distributes annually certain articles among a portion of the aboriginal population in Canada; and the following is an official statement of the presents required for the year 1849:—

Full equipment—chiefs, 46; warriors, 50; women, 77. Common equipment—chiefs, 190; warriors, 3,356; women, 3,977; boys, 1,024; girls, 1,021; total, 12,818. The equipments, include blue and grey clothes, cottons, linen, about 12,000 blankets, brass kettles, muskets, powder, ball, tobacco, needles (22,428), combs (5,607), awls (5,607), knives (5,607).

The character of the Indians and their different tribes, will be given under the description of the Hudson's Bay territories.

In 1692, Quebec contained only 50 Europeans, including both sexes. In 1706, M.M. Randot stated the population of Canada at 20,000. In 1714, M. De Ponchartrain, in a letter to M. De Vaudreuil, stated, that Canada contained 4,484 men capable of bearing arms, *i.e.*, from 14 to 60 years of age, which multiplied by 6, gives 26,904.

In 1720, the city of Quebec contained 7,000, and Montreal 3,000 inhabitants.

The following details are chiefly derived from the documents laid before the Canadian Parliament in 1849. The population of Eastern Canada is stated to have increased as follows:—

Year.	Pop.	Year.	Pop.
1676	8,415	1825	423,630
1688	11,249	1827	471,876
1700	15,000	1831	511,922
1706	20,000	1836	572,877
1759	65,000	1844	690,782
1784	113,000	1848	768,334

The census of 1825 showed, on a population of 423,630, male adults to the number of 105,571, or a per centage of 24.90. In 1844 on a population of 690,782, as compared with 511,920 in 1825, the increased

POPULATION OF EASTERN CANADA BY COUNTIES.

107

per centage of males was 34.94. In 1844-45 there were, of *white* inhabitants—males, 344,855; females, 346,077; *coloured*—males, 140; females, 141.

There was no census taken in Eastern Canada for 1848; but by careful estimates and per centages on the previous rates of annual increase, an approximate calculation has been made; and the following table shows the area in square miles of each county in Eastern Canada, and the population in 1844 and 1848:—

Districts.	Land, Square Miles.	Population.	
		1844.	1848.
GASPE:—			
Gaspé	4,053	7,146	7,771
Bonaventure	4,560	8,246	8,786
QUEBEC:—			
Saguenay	75,700	13,475	19,364
Montmorenci	7,465	8,434	8,988
Quebec	16,040	45,676	65,805
Portneuf	10,440	15,922	17,777
Rimouski	8,200	17,630	19,683
Kamouraska	1,090	17,465	18,992
L'Islet	1,220	17,013	18,520
Bellechasse	1,083	14,549	15,823
Lotbinière	735	13,697	15,292
Dorchester	2,050	34,817	38,877
Megantic	1,465	6,449	7,535
THREE RIVERS:—			
Champlain	6,200	10,404	11,312
St. Maurice	7,300	20,833	17,981
Drummond	1,644	9,374	10,467
Yamaska	283	11,956	13,000
Nicolet	487	16,310	17,735
ST. FRANCIS:—			
Sherbrooke	2,785	13,485	15,055
Stanstead	632	11,964	13,009
MONTREAL:—			
Berthier	9,590	26,859	29,988
Leinster	5,090	25,533	28,507
Terrebonne	545	20,646	23,052
Two Mountains	1,404	26,835	29,352
Ottawa	35,100	12,434	17,870
Montreal	197	64,306	71,039
Vaudreuil	330	17,063	18,554
Beauharnois	717	28,746	32,035
Huntingdon	488	36,204	39,371
Chambly	211	17,155	18,610
Vercheres	198	13,167	14,029
Richelieu	373	20,888	22,255
St. Hyacinthe	477	21,937	23,894
Rouville	429	22,898	24,900
Shefford	749	10,105	11,282
Missisquoi	360	10,865	11,815
Total	209,290	690,782	768,334

This statement shows how thinly Eastern Canada is peopled: there being not more than *three mouths and a half* to each square mile.

The census of 1844 in Eastern Canada was accurate, and it shows that out of 690,782 inhabitants, there were under 15 years of age, males, 160,535, females, 158,731 = 319,266.

The proportion in 1844 of married men to the whole, was 60.55 per cent.; and of

unmarried, 39.45. Married women above 14 years of age, 61.18 per cent.; and single, 38.82 per cent.

Males.	Married.	Single.	Total.
15 and under 21	2,038	39,589	41,627
21 " 30	22,974	20,176	43,150
30 " 40	33,684	5,909	39,593
40 " 50	25,797	31,119	28,916
50 " 60	15,148	2,089	17,237
60 and upwards.	13,393	2,780	16,173
Total in 1844 . .	173,034	73,662	186,696
" 1831 . .	83,153	60,690	143,843
" 1825 . .	69,938	36,935	105,873

In England it is assumed that the births are about 1 to 33 of the whole population, and the deaths 1 in 54. In Eastern Canada, according to the census of 1844, there were—

Districts.	1844.		
	Births.	Deaths.	Marriages.
Quebec	1 in 20	1 in 41	1 in 109
Montreal	" 20	" 51	" 111
Three Rivers	" 21	" 60	" 106
Gaspé	" 29	" 126	" 136
St. Francis	" 101	" 348	" 230
In the whole	" 21	" 53	" 113
Total numbers	32,279	12,928	6,118

Note.—The returns for St. Francis district are imperfect, and fractions omitted.

Districts.	1847.		
	Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
Montreal	18,772	381	9,435
Quebec	11,715	2,065	10,221
Three Rivers	3,612	572	1,238
St. Francis	514	161	120
Gaspé	594	101	128
Total	35,207	6,283	21,142

Increase of Births over Deaths, 14,165.

The census of 1844 shows, in Eastern Canada, the following interesting particulars:—

Deaf and Dumb in 1844.

Districts.	Males.	Fems.	Total.	Average.
Montreal	254	167	421	1 in 875
St. Francis	14	17	31	" 1,046
Three Rivers	39	31	70	" 983
Quebec	73	58	151	" 1,360
Gaspé	7	3	10	" 1,539
Total	407	276	683	1,011

The French colonists did not advance far into Western Canada, probably owing to their wars with the Indians. Previous to 1770, the only white settlers in Western Canada were a few Frenchmen in the vicinities of Kingston and Detroit. When the United Colonies (now the United States) threw off their allegiance to England, and the war commenced between them and the parent state, many desirous of remaining under the crown of England, fled from the revolting provinces, and fixed their residences at the frontier townships in Western Canada. Their numbers were gradually increased by emigrants from Britain. The progressive augmentation since 1811 has been as follows:—

Population in Western Canada.

1811	..	77,000	1835	..	336,469
1824	..	151,097	1838	..	385,824
1825	..	158,027	1839	..	407,515
1826	..	163,702	1840	..	427,441
1827	..	176,059	1841	..	465,357
1828	..	261,060	1842	..	486,055
1832	..	261,069	1848	..	732,292
1834	..	320,693	1849	..	750,000

The average annual increase from 1824 to 1828 was 9,261; from 1828 to 1832 it was 18,661; from 1832 to 1834 the yearly augmentation was 22,212; from 1834 to 1836 18,712.

Taking the ratio of increase during the periods from 1824 to 1833, and from 1828 to 1836, the population of Upper Canada would double itself in less than 10 years.

The increase of males and females in Western Canada since 1821 has been—

Years.	Males.	Females.	Years.	Males.	Females.
1821	65,792	56,795	1832	130,003	117,039
1823	79,238	70,931	1836	189,271	168,916
1827	95,903	85,842	1842	259,914	226,141
1828	99,465	80,093	1848	387,631	338,248
1829	103,285	92,880			

In 1842 and 1848 the females were to the males as 100 to 88. In 1848 the total female adults were 179,468, of whom 111,034, or 62·04 per cent., were married.

Population of Upper Canada, and its increase at several periods between the years 1824 and 1848, according to the divisions into Municipal Districts.

Districts.	1824.	1825.	1830.	1832.	1834.	1836.	1839.	1841.	1842.	1848.
Bathurst	10,121	10,309	16,015	19,636	22,079	24,127	24,632	27,635	21,655	29,448
Brook	15,621	17,286	29,219
Colborne	13,706	21,379
Dalhousie	16,193	25,520
Eastern	14,879	16,524	19,755	21,735	25,105	28,911	28,827	30,279	32,008	38,653
Gore	13,157	14,215	20,945	27,221	34,618	43,920	51,627	42,577	45,059	67,671
Home	16,609	17,946	28,565	36,633	55,508	53,214	59,209	67,074	83,301	106,995
Huron	7,190	20,450
Johnstown	14,741	15,266	19,277	21,299	28,061	29,237	32,669	35,952	32,445	43,436
London	17,539	17,351	22,803	28,941	37,162	47,095	43,882	32,257	30,276	46,517
Midland	27,695	27,116	34,190	37,457	32,509	24,818	26,179	32,208	34,448	45,299
Newcastle	9,292	9,066	14,850	21,019	27,404	32,936	36,914	41,951	31,015	47,433
Niagara	17,552	18,990	20,916	24,181	27,347	30,447	29,953	34,577	36,612	43,005
Ottawa	2,560	2,580	2,833	5,293	6,325	7,487	8,483	9,324	7,369	10,364
Prince Edward's	11,823	12,343	13,999	14,661	11,915	18,021
Simcoe	3,985	—	10,215	10,743	11,576	—	23,050
Talbot	9,066	9,626	10,455	19,274
Victoria	10,587	12,085	13,161	13,196	23,133
Wellington	13,851	14,476	36,865
Western	6,952	7,764	9,288	10,627	12,752	17,065	19,267	23,026	24,390	27,440
Totals	151,097	158,027	210,437	261,060	320,693	372,502	407,515	465,357	486,055	723,292
Increase:—										
1825	6,930	52,410	50,523	59,633	51,809	35,013	57,842	20,698	237,237
1830	59,340	103,033	110,256	111,442	86,822	92,855	78,510	258,835
1832	109,963	162,666	162,065	146,455	144,661	113,553	313,777
1834	169,596	214,475	197,078	201,297	165,362	350,790
1836	221,405	219,488	251,920	224,995	402,599
1839	256,418	307,330	275,618	462,232
1841	314,260	328,026	512,855
1842	334,958	565,265
1848	572,195

Note.—In the detail, the number for 1848 is 723,332, showing a difference of 10. The returns for Simcoe in 1834 and 1842, are included in the Home district.

The progressive increase of both sexes, according to ages, is thus shown in Western Canada:—

	Under 16 years of age.		Over 16 years of age.		Total.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
1824 . . .	37,316	35,606	41,393	36,752	151,067
1827 . . .	67,119	62,734	70,127	60,780	261,060
1831 . . .	81,951	76,511	88,182	74,109	320,693
1842 . . .	137,664	122,252	108,634	117,505	486,055

According to the census of 1848, there were—

Years.	Males.	Fem.	Males.		Females.	
			Mar.	Single	Mar.	Single
Under 5 . . .	70,834	69,516	—	—	—	—
5 and under 14	96,436	89,264	—	—	—	—
14 " 18 . . .	—	—	1,950	31,588	—	—
18 " 21 . . .	—	—	1,351	20,516	—	—
21 " 30 . . .	—	—	25,297	30,938	—	—
30 " 45 . . .	—	—	—	—	87,906	60,664
45 " 60 . . .	—	—	80,637	13,908	—	—
60 " upwards	—	—	—	—	23,398	7,500
60 " . . .	—	—	11,688	3,128	—	—

Note.—The Number of Children between 5 and 16 years of age was 19,032.

Census of Western Canada by Electoral Divisions, as divided by Act 8 Vic. c. 7.

Districts.	Area in Acres.	Population.	
		1842.	1848.
Bathurst . . .	1,260,800	21,655	29,448
Brook . . .	584,320	17,286	29,219
Colborne . . .	647,040	13,706	21,379
Dalhousie . . .	448,000	16,193	25,520
Eastern . . .	779,520	32,008	38,653
Gore . . .	741,760	45,059	67,671
Home . . .	1,361,600	83,301	106,995
Huron . . .	1,104,000	7,190	20,450
Johnstown . . .	1,021,000	32,445	43,436
London . . .	990,040	30,276	46,547
Midland . . .	1,198,720	34,448	45,299
Newcastle . . .	1,344,640	31,015	47,433
Niagara . . .	703,360	36,642	43,095
Ottawa . . .	532,960	7,369	10,364
Prince Edward	220,000	14,945	18,021
Simcoe . . .	1,448,800	in home	23,050
Talbot . . .	381,000	10,455	19,274
Victoria . . .	842,000	13,496	23,133
Wellington . . .	1,097,600	14,476	36,865
Western . . .	1,616,640	24,390	27,440
Total . . .	18,358,800	486,055	723,292

The contents of each district are given according to Bonchette, making a total of 258,684 square miles. This includes only the surveyed and settled portion of Western Canada, which contains, according to the same authority, a superficial area of 141,000 square statute miles. The number of indi-

viduals to each square mile in the settled districts above named is 25, and to each square mile of area in Western Canada there are 5 inhabitants. The area of the Indian territory in the vicinity of Lake Huron is 1,883,200. New districts and townships are progressively added to the settled parts of the province. The average area of each township is about 60,000 acres. The fine country N. of the Midland, Victoria, and Colborne districts, S. of the parallel of 47° N., and situated between Georgian Bay and the Ottawa, 150 miles long by 150 broad, is as yet unoccupied, and would contain an immense population.

Population of Cities and incorporated Towns in 1848.—*Cities:* Toronto, 23,503; Hamilton, 9,889; Kingston, 8,369. *Towns:* Bytown, 6,275; Cornwall, 1,454; Brockville, 2,449; Prescott, 1,775; Picton, 1,599; Belleville, 2,939; Cobourg, 3,513; Port Hope, 2,025; Niagara, 3,100; St. Catharines, 3,416; London, 4,584; Peterboro, 1,906; Brantford, 2,250; Dundas, 1,912. The number of inhabitants to each house is $6\frac{1}{2}$, and the average of persons in each family is 6.

Table of Distances of Principal Towns.

Montreal.											
82	Cornwall										
131	49	Prescott									
143	61	12	Brockville.								
199	117	68	56	Kingston.							
258	176	127	115	59	Belleville.						
301	222	173	161	105	46	Cobourg.					
390	308	259	247	191	132	86	Toronto				
475	393	344	332	276	217	171	85	Niagara.			
482	400	351	339	283	224	178	92	7	Queenston.		
508	426	377	365	309	250	204	118	33	26	Fort Erie	

In 1848 the births were 27,688; or 1 to every 26. Deaths, 11,518; or 1 to 63. Difference, 16,170; or 1 to 37. The general average of births and deaths in England is of the former 1 in 33, and of the latter 1 in 54. This shows the superior salubrity of Canada, where twin and triplet births are frequent. The *Colonial Magazine* of 1845 thus announces an instance:—"At Buckingham, near Bytown, Canada, on July 10, Mrs. O'Callaghan of two boys and a girl. Mrs. O'Callaghan has been the mother of five children within the space of two years."

—According to the United States' census in 1840, children under 5 years constitute about 15 per cent. of the population; in Canada nearly 20 per cent.; in England the proportion is much less. For every 100 males born, about 42 die, and for every 100 females, 41 die. In Western Canada there were—

In 1848.	Males.		Females.	
Births . . .	15,317	—	12,371	—
Deaths . . .	6,429	—	5,089	—
Lunatics and Idiots	457	1 in 848	311	1 in 1,088
Deaf and Dumb .	234	" 1,656	194	" 1,743
Blind . . .	152	" 1,550	200	" 1,691

The census of the United States does not classify the sexes, as regards lunatics, deaf, dumb, and blind. The proportions of both sexes in the U. States, according to census in 1840, were—blind, 6,916, or 1 in every 2,842 inhabitants; deaf and dumb, 7,659, or 1 in every 2,228; lunatics and idiots, 17,434, or 1 in every 979. The total number afflicted as above stated were—in Canada, 1,548, or 1 in every 472 inhabitants. In the United States, 32,009, or 1 in every 533 inhabitants.

In 1842 the census for Western Canada showed a total afflicted as above:—males, 798, or 1 in every 326; females, 886, or 1 in every 255; total, 1,684, or 1 in every 288. This indicates a considerable improvement in the number of sane and sound births. In the census of 1842 the idiots are properly distinguished from the lunatics, thus:—

<i>Idiots.</i>		
Males . . .	221, or 1 in 1,176	
Females . .	178 " 1,271	
	399 " 1,818	
<i>Lunatics.</i>		
Males . . .	241, or 1 in 1,078	
Females . .	487 " 464	
	728 " 667	

The increase of farm servants in Western Canada shows an increase in the number of those able to employ assistance. In 1842 the number of *resident* farm servants was 3,184; and in 1848, 7,514—more than double. In the same period the domestic female servants increased from 5,181 to 10,701. In 1848 there were, according to sex—

—	Males.	Females	Total.
Domestic Servants . .	4,409	10,701	15,110
Coloured Persons . .	3,016	2,453	5,469
Persons attending Schools or Colleges . . .	46,371	34,090	80,461

According to the census of 1848, the population of 723,332 inhabited 112,595 houses; or nearly 7 to each house. The average of persons in each family was about 6. The number of heads of families 119,061. Proprietors of real estate, 60,559; non-proprietors, 49,321.

Where the returns were perfect, in 616,514 persons there were 100,405 heads of families. Employed in professions, 1,877; trade, commerce, and handicrafts, 19,713; agriculture, 68,417; labourers, 11,135; in factories, 3,866. In the whole province about 80 per cent. of the population derived their subsistence directly from agriculture. The non-producing classes do not amount to 8,000.

Population of Canada, according to origin.

Countries.	Eastern Canada.	Western Canada.	
	1844.	1842.	1848.
English . . .	12,136	43,009	64,560
Irish . . .	44,512	82,728	140,673
Scotch . . .	13,591	42,003	57,604
Canadian-French .	520,215	14,767	20,490
" British . . .	86,075	261,822	383,084
From Continental Europe, &c. . .	2,471	6,957	18,847
" United States . .	12,193	34,739	32,579
Total . . .	691,193	486,055	717,837

There was no census of Eastern Canada in 1848, although enjoined by law; it is therefore impossible to state the number of French Canadians now in Eastern and Western Canada; they are certainly not less than *six hundred thousand*. In Western Canada the proportions of races and increase per cent. in 7 years were:—

Countries.	1842.	1848.	Increase per cent. in 7 years.
England . . .	8.85	8.99	50.10
Ireland . . .	17.02	19.60	70.01
Scotland . . .	8.65	8.03	37.04
Canadian-French .	3.05	2.85	38.75
" British . . .	53.86	53.36	46.31
Continental Europe .	1.43	2.63	170.90 decrease.
United States . .	7.14	4.51	6.63
Total . . .	100.00	100.00	Increase.
On the whole Pop., according to origin			47.68
According to census, by ages, in 1848 .			51.40

It is evident that no influx of natives of the United States takes place. The equable

rate of increase of the different nations is remarkable.

Population of Canada according to Religious Census.

Denominations	Eastern Canada.	Western Canada.	
	1841.	1842.	1848.
Church of England . . .	42,271	107,791	171,757
Church of Scotland . . .	26,725	77,869	67,900
Church of Rome	57,171	65,203	123,707
British Wesleyans	10,814	23,342	90,363
Canadian Wesleyans . . .	3,010	32,313	36,893
Episcopal Methodists . . .	711	20,125	14,977
Other Methodists	1,318	7,111	65,101
Presbyterians, not Church of Scotland	5,231	18,220	65,101
Congregationalists and Independents	3,890	4,253	6,126
Baptists and Anabaptists .	4,067	16,411	28,965
Lutherans	96	4,521	7,420
Quakers	144	5,200	6,148
Jews	154	1,105	134
Other denominations, or not accounted for	20,145	101,538	83,817

Note.—"Other denominations" in Western Canada in 1848, include 62,128 of no creed or denomination; 4,767 menonists; 2,269 universalists; 700 unitarians; and 13,983 of all other denominations. The presbyterians of Western Canada in 1848, include 64,729 of the "free presbyterian church of Canada," and 20,372 of other presbyterians. The census of 1848 of Western Canada, shows a deficiency of 22,790, compared with the census by ages, which have been divided among the several denominations in proportion to the numbers returned. Sectarian jealousies prevail so strongly that perfect accuracy in the religious census cannot be expected.

The character of the inhabitants of Canada partakes of the source whence they spring—if of French descent, levity and obsequiousness give place to ease, or rather gentleness of manner, combined with manly, yet respectful freedom of deportment: the descendants of the English lose the rusticity and boorishness peculiar to the lower class of their ancestors; and with abundance of the necessaries of life, and leisure for the improvement of their minds, the natural saturnine character of the British is relieved by a pleasing buoyancy of spirit and enthusiasm of action.

The offspring of the original French inhabitants, forming about one-half of the population, deserve a few special remarks as to their habits and manners. Most of the people are proprietors to a greater or less extent, of land; and the equal division of property, on the demise of a parent, contributes to spread a large mass of industry and capital over the country. Possessed of the means of a comfortable existence, and freed from the dread of future want, the Canadian spends his life in cheerful toil, and evinces

by his light-hearted, hospitable, and social habits, the blessings derived from the enjoyment, on no harsh terms, of the few and simple necessities of life.

The true Canadian, although fond of pleasure and social happiness, is yet rather a sedentary being, and of a staid, often sombre deportment; peculiarly attached to the locality which gave him birth; devoted to the religion in which he was educated, sincere in his respect for those whom he considers his superiors, and remarkable for his faithful fulfilment of every social duty. Although unlettered himself in the European sense of the term, he is ever ready to pay his tribute of respect to those possessed of mental endowments—the more so if literary attainments be accompanied by moral worth; with a mind deeply imbued with early prejudices as to religion, country, and institutions, yet charitable to a considerable extent towards the feelings and even the *failings* of others; polite, without affectation; generous, without parade; slow to offend; quick to resent an insult, yet ready to forgive. Many governors have borne testimony to the favourable traits which distinguish the French Canadians. Lord Durham said—"they are mild and kindly, frugal, industrious, and honest; very sociable, cheerful, and hospitable, and distinguished for a courtesy and real politeness, which pervades every class of society."

The French Canadian women are when young, handsome brunettes, fond of finery, but good wives and mothers; their wit is sparkling, and in constant exercise, more playful than sarcastic, delighting rather than wounding, but withal remarkable for a kind of good-natured maliciousness. All who have visited the Canadas agree that society there is extremely agreeable—freed from unnecessary forms, giving to life an air of delightful ease, and to private intercourse a charming tone and colouring.

As in all Roman catholic countries, the enjoyments of the people are connected with their religious ceremonies; on the Sabbath morn, the parish, or village chapel, is thronged with both sexes, clad in their best habiliments; but, the service over, and that part of their duty to the Creator fulfilled, the remainder of the day is devoted to festivity; the enjoyment of social happiness being considered an essential part of the weekly festival. Sunday afternoon is, in fact, a season of gaiety; the parish church collects together an assemblage of relatives and

friends intent on enjoyment; the old meet to converse on the state of the weather—the crops—the politics of the day; the young to make love to their sweethearts—the chevalier, on his best pacer, or driving his finest carriage—the lady, adorned in the most becoming style, palpitating with the hopes and fears of an approaching bridal day—the evening in cheerful feasts, to which dancing is frequently superadded. The *habitans* (French Canadians) of the poorer classes are generally tall and thin, with small, dark, lively eyes, aquiline noses, and thin lips. Those who are much exposed to the air are as dark as the Indian race.

The dress of the *habitan* is peculiar, as well as his manners; it consists of a grey cloth *capot*, or large coat reaching to the knee, bound round the middle with a sash of scarlet, or exhibiting various bright colours, and close-buttoned to the neck: the *bonnet bleu*, or a light straw hat is worn in the heat of summer, a fur cap in winter; mocassins of sole leather complete the male peasant's usual dress. The female peasant's costume is similar to that worn in the south of France—the *mantelet*, a jacket of dark, or different coloured cloth, with a stuff petticoat, mocassins, and a head dress *à la Française*: on Sunday, of course, the habiliments are of more varied character, and where the English girl wears one colour, the Canadian will exhibit half a dozen of the brightest hues. The people are frugal in their habits; their diet consists chiefly of soups, vegetables, and fish, and their farms furnish almost every thing they require.

Of the houses it may be sufficient to observe that there is a great similarity between those of the farmers and peasantry in Normandy, and the people of a similar grade in Canada; they are generally of one story, built of wood, whitewashed, extremely clean within, and having the chimney in the centre of the building; there is a partition between the kitchen and large apartment, where the inmates dwell; the sleeping-rooms are at either end of the house, which is well furnished with beds, home-made linen of excellent texture; strong, convenient, and often handsome furniture, and a large variety of ordinary utensils.

The adjacent garden, though laid out with little regard to the rules of art, abounds in fruit and vegetables, the rearing of which devolves on the women of the family, whose taste is often displayed in small patches of flowers, which appear to grow wild, but are

really raised with care, to afford that exquisite enjoyment which the rudest and least sophisticated seem to feel in viewing and scenting “the lilies of the fields.” The farm lies around the house; and at a greater or less distance, the river or lake offers an ample supply of the finny tribe for a *cuisine*, always abundant, sometimes luxurious: while the rich maple yields a large store of sugar, for the preservation of the luscious summer fruits, through a long and dreary winter.

Lord Durham, in his able report, has drawn an excellent picture of the French Canadian; he traces from its commencement the deep-rooted hatred of race which exercises so injurious an influence upon the internal peace and prosperity of Canada, and renders its legislation so difficult at the present moment. At the period of the early colonization of Canada, the institutions of France were, perhaps more than those of any other European nation, calculated to repress the intelligence and freedom of the great mass of the people. The same ill-organised and repressive despotism followed the Canadian colonist across the Atlantic. He was allowed no voice in the government of his province or the choice of his rulers, and not even permitted to associate with his neighbours for the regulation of municipal affairs. He obtained his land on a tenure singularly calculated to promote his immediate comfort, but which placed him at once in a life of constant labour and of feudal dependence. Ecclesiastical authority continued to exercise its influence over him—education was neglected both by the government and by the people, and congregated together in rural communities, occupying portions of the unappropriated soil, with abundance of the mere necessities of life, retained in a course of labour, varied only by the social enjoyments to which the French are so much attached, the colonists remained for years the same uninstructed, inactive, and unprogressive people. No towns were established; a series of continuous villages along the banks of the St. Lawrence gave the seignories the appearance of a never-ending street; and the farms owed their productiveness to the fertility of the soil, rather than to the skill employed for its cultivation. Their energy was manifested chiefly in the fur trade, and in hunting, and commerce was scarcely deemed deserving of attention. With the tenacity peculiar to the Gothic or Celtic race, the people clung to

ancient prejudices, customs, and laws; and the habits and manners which gradually passed away from European society were preserved in all their pristine character in the new world. At the time of the British conquest of Canada, the people were in an old and stationary state of society—in the vicinity of an active and progressive Anglo-Saxon race. A few families possessed seigniorial rights, large, though not valuable, properties, and much influence over the bulk of the people, of whom few depended on wages for their support—the mass being in the condition of a hard-working yeomanry.

The piety of the early founders of Canada, and the foresight of the Jesuits, provided seminaries and means for public instruction, which was little attended to until density of population pressed on the means of existence, and made the cadets of families seek in a profession the subsistence heretofore derived from the land. Two or three hundred young men thus annually became by education superior to the community whence they sprang, and as the military and naval professions were resources not available to the colonists, the church, the law, and medicine soon became overthroned with village priests, advocates, and medicine men, who, possessed of superior knowledge, wielded an extraordinary influence over an uninstructed population, with whom they lived on terms of social equality, and from whom they were separated by no barriers of manners, of pride, or distinct interests. Unfortunately the British government took no steps to conciliate or to employ this class, who naturally fell into the position of demagogues, and were moved as one mass by the leading members of the House of Assembly, during the struggle for constitutional rights, which has been detailed in the first chapter.

"Among the people," says Lord Durham—

"The progress of emigration has of late years introduced an English population, exhibiting the characteristics with which we are familiar, as those of the most enterprising of every class of our countrymen. The circumstances of the early colonial administration excluded the native Canadian from power, and vested all offices of trust and emolument in the hands of strangers of English origin. The highest posts in the law were confided to the same class of persons. The functionaries of the civil government, together with the officers of the army, composed a kind of privileged class, occupying the first place in the community, and excluding the higher class of the natives from society, as well as from the government of their own country. It was not till within a very few years, as was testified by persons who had seen much of the country, that this society of civil and military

functionaries ceased to exhibit towards the higher order of Canadians an exclusiveness of demeanour which was more revolting to a sensitive and polite people than the monopoly of power and profit; nor was this national favouritism discontinued until after repeated complaints and an angry contest, which had excited passions that concessions could not allay. The races had become enemies ere a tardy justice was extorted; and even then the government discovered a mode of distributing its patronage among the Canadians, which was quite as offensive to that people as their previous exclusion."

The English capitalist, merchant, trader, and farmer became formidable competitors with an inert race; they rapidly acquired about half of the more valuable seigniorial rights in the townships, and considerable irritation arose by the transfer of large properties from burthened seignors to active British agriculturists and settlers, whose superior energy, skill, and capital, not only threw into their hands the entire wholesale, and a large proportion of the retail trade of the province, but also vested in their hands the most profitable and flourishing farms. It will afford an idea of the influence and power possessed by the British minority previous to the legislative union of Eastern and Western Canada, by examining the relative investments of the two races in the public institutions of the province:—

Public Companies.	Capital.	Shares.	British.	French
ENGLISH-CANADIAN:	£.		£	£
Stock of Montreal Bank . . .	250,000	5,000	247,400	2,600
Ditto of City Bank . . .	200,000	8,000	192,800	7,200
Ditto of Champlain, and St. Lawrence Railway Company . . .	50,000	1,000	49,150	850
Ditto Montreal Water Works . . .	70,000	80	70,000	—
Ditto of St. Lawrence Steam-boat Company . . .	65,000	48	61,615	3,385
Ditto Montreal Steam Tow Boat Company . . .	40,200	710	38,518	1,682
Ditto Ottawa and Rideau Forwarding Company . . .	33,190	1,172	32,482	508
Ditto St. Lawrence Steam-boat and Mail Coach Company . . .	25,000	1,000	25,000	—
Ditto Montreal Gas Works . . .	20,000	1,000	19,500	500
Ditto St. Ann Market . . .	15,500	—	13,575	1,925
Ditto of other Steam-boats and capital invested in the Forwarding establishments on the St. Lawrence, above and below Montreal . . .	50,000	—	50,000	—
	818,890	—	800,040	18,850
FRENCH-CANADIAN:				
Stock of Mutual Insurance Company . . .	40,000	—	16,281	23,719
Ditto Banque du Peuple People's Bank . . .	80,000	—	30,000	50,000
	938,890	—	846,321	92,569

Previous to the rebellion of 1837, the

antagonism of race had risen to a great height. It would not be possible to convey in few words an adequate idea of the deep-rooted feelings of estrangement and almost aversion with which the French and English Canadians regarded each other, and by which the tranquillity of the province was so seriously injured. The language of Lord Durham is so clear upon this point, and the facts he states so elucidatory of the mischievous consequences of playing off the prejudices of two races against each other, that I cannot resist giving the following portion of the Report laid by his lordship before the queen:—

“I do not believe that the animosity which exists between the working classes of the two origins is the necessary result of a collision of interests, or of a jealousy of the superior success of English labour. But national prejudices naturally exercise the greatest influence over the most uneducated; the difference of language is less easily overcome; the differences of manners and customs less easily appreciated. The labourers, whom the emigration introduced, contained a number of very ignorant, turbulent, and demoralized persons, whose conduct and manners alike revolted the well-ordered and courteous natives of the same class. The working-men naturally ranged themselves on the side of the educated and wealthy of their own countrymen. When once engaged in the conflict, their passions were less restrained by education and prudence: and the national hostility now rages most fiercely between those whose interests in reality bring them the least in collision.

“The two races thus distinct have been brought into the same community, under circumstances which rendered their contact inevitably productive of collision. The difference of language from the first kept them asunder. It is not anywhere a virtue of the English race to look with complacency on any manners, customs, or laws, which appear strange to them; accustomed to form a high estimate of their own superiority they take no pains to conceal from others their contempt and intolerance of their usages. They found the French Canadian filled with an equal amount of national pride; a sensitive, but inactive pride, which disposes that people not to resent insult, but rather to keep aloof from those who would keep them under. The French could not but feel the superiority of English enterprise; they could not shut their eyes to their success in every undertaking in which they came into contact, and to the constant superiority which they were acquiring. They looked upon their rivals with alarm, with jealousy, and, finally, with hatred. The English repaid them with a scorn, which soon also assumed the same form of hatred. The French complained of the arrogance and injustice of the English; the English accused the French of the vices of a weak and conquered people, and charged them with meanness and perfidy. The entire mistrust which the two races have thus learned to conceive of each other's intentions, induces them to put the worst construction on the most innocent conduct; to judge every word, every act, and every intention unfairly; to attribute the most odious designs, and reject every overture of

kindness or fairness, as covering secret designs of treachery and malignity.

“Religion formed no bond of intercourse and union. It is, indeed, an admirable feature of Canadian society, that it is entirely devoid of any religious dissensions. Sectarian intolerance is not merely not avowed, but it hardly seems to influence men's feelings. But though the prudence and liberality of both parties has prevented this fruitful source of animosity from embittering their quarrels, the difference of religion has in fact tended to keep them asunder. Their priests have been distinct; they have not met even in the same church.

“No common education has served to remove and soften the difference of origin and language. The associations of youth, the sports of childhood, and the studies by which the character of manhood is modified, are distinct and totally different. In Montreal and Quebec there are English schools and French schools; the children in these are accustomed to fight nation against nation, and the quarrels that arise among boys in the streets usually exhibit a division into English on one side, and French on the other.

As they are taught apart, so are their studies different. The literature with which each is the most conversant, is that of the peculiar language of each; and all the ideas which men derive from books, come to each of them from perfectly different sources. The difference of language in this respect produces effects quite apart from those which it has on the mere intercourse of the two races. Those who have reflected on the powerful influence of language on thought, will perceive in how different a manner people who speak in different languages are apt to think; and those who are familiar with the literature of France, know that the same opinion will be expressed by an English and French writer of the present day, not merely in different words, but in a style so different as to mark utterly different habits of thought. This difference is very striking in Lower Canada: it exists not merely in the books of most influence and repute, which are of course those of the great writers of France and England, and by which the minds of the respective races are formed, but it is observable in the writings which now issue from the colonial press. The articles in the newspapers of each race, are written in a style as widely different as those of France and England at present; and the arguments which convince the one, are calculated to appear utterly unintelligible to the other.

“The difference of language produces misconceptions yet more fatal even than those which it occasions with respect to opinions; it aggravates the national animosities, by representing all the events of the day in utterly different lights. The political misrepresentation of facts is one of the incidents of a free press in every free country; but in nations in which all speak the same language, those who receive a misrepresentation from one side, have generally some means of learning the truth from the other. In Lower Canada, however, where the French and English papers represent adverse opinions, and where no large portion of the community can read both languages with ease, those who receive the misrepresentations are rarely able to avail themselves of the means of correction. It is difficult to conceive the perversity with which misrepresentations are habitually made, and the gross delusions which find currency among the people: they thus live in a world of misconceptions, in which each party is set against

the other, not only by diversity of feelings and opinions, but by an actual belief in an utterly different set of facts.

The differences thus early occasioned by education and language, are in nowise softened by the intercourse of after-life; their business and occupations do not bring the two races into friendly contact and co-operation, but only present them to each other in occasional rivalry. They rarely meet at the inns in the cities; the principal hotels are almost exclusively filled with English and with foreign travellers; and the French are, for the most part, received at each other's houses, or in boarding-houses, in which they meet with few English.

Nor do their amusements bring them more in contact. Social intercourse never existed between the two races in any but the higher classes, and it is now almost destroyed. I heard of but one house in Quebec in which both races met on pretty equal and amicable terms, and this was mentioned as a singular instance of good sense on the part of the gentleman to whom it belongs. At the commencement of Lord Aylmer's administration, an entertainment was given to his lordship by Mr. Papineau, the Speaker of the House of Assembly. It was generally understood to be intended as a mark of confidence and good-will towards the governor, and of a conciliatory disposition. It was given on a very large scale, a very great number of persons were present; and of that number, I was informed by a gentleman who was present, that he and one other were the only English except the governor and his suite. Indeed the difference of manners in the two races renders a general social intercourse almost impossible.

"A singular instance of national incompatibility was brought before my notice, in an attempt which I made to promote an undertaking, in which the French are said to take a great deal of interest. I accepted the office of President of the Agricultural Association of the district of Quebec, and attended the show previous to the distribution of the prizes. I then found that the French farmers would not compete even on this neutral ground with the English; distinct prizes were given, in almost every department to the two races; and the national ploughing matches were carried on in separate and even distant fields.

"While such is their social intercourse, it is not to be expected that the animosities of the two races can frequently be softened by the formation of domestic connections. During the first period of the possession of the colony by the English, intermarriages of the two races were by no means uncommon; but they are now very rare.

"I could mention various slight features in the state of society, which show the all pervading and marked division of the races; but nothing (though it will sound paradoxical) really proves their entire separation so much as the rarity, nay almost total absence, of personal encounters between the two races. Disputes of this kind are almost confined to the lower order of people, and seldom proceed to acts of violence. As respects the other classes, social intercourse between the two races is so limited, that the more prominent or excitable antagonists never meet in the same room. It came to my knowledge that a gentleman, who was for some years a most active and determined leader amongst the English population, had never once been under a private roof with French Canadians of his own rank in life, until he met some at table on the invitation of persons

attached to my mission, who were in the habit of associating indifferently with French and English. There are, therefore, no political personal controversies. The ordinary occasions of collision never occur, and men must quarrel so publicly, or so deliberately, that prudence restrains them from commencing individually, what would probably end in a general and bloody conflict of numbers. Their mutual fears restrain personal disputes and riots, even among the lower orders; the French know and dread the superior physical strength of the English in the cities; and the English in those places refrain from exhibiting their power, from the fear of the revenge that might be taken on their countrymen, who are scattered over the rural parishes.

"This feeling of mutual forbearance extends so far as to produce an apparent calm with respect to public matters, which is calculated to perplex a stranger who has heard much of the animosities of the province. No trace of them appears in public meetings; and these take place in every direction, in the most excited periods, and go off without disturbance, and almost without dissent. The fact is, that both parties have come to a tacit understanding, not in any way to interfere with each other on these occasions; each party knowing that it would always be in the power of the other to prevent its meetings. The British party consequently have their meetings; the French theirs; and neither disturb the other. The complimentary addresses which I received on various occasions, marked the same entire separation, even in a matter in which it might be supposed that party feeling would not be felt, or would from mere prudence and propriety be concealed. I had from the same places, French and English addresses, and I never found the two races uniting, except in a few cases where I met with the names of two or three isolated members of one origin, who happened to dwell in a community almost entirely composed of the other. The two parties combine for no public object; they cannot harmonize even in associations of charity. The only public occasion on which they ever meet, is in the jury-box; and they meet there only to the utter obstruction of justice."

With these grave obstacles her majesty's government have, at the present moment, to contend. It is well known to be the anxious desire of the Queen, that justice should be administered with entire impartiality to all classes of her majesty's subjects; that a faithful discharge of public duties, and exemplary conduct in private life, are the only means by which the honours and favours of the crown can be obtained, and the support of the British government secured. The old system of "*Divide et Impera*" has passed away, alike at home, and in the colonies; but a system which was founded in fear, and perpetuated by injustice, has necessarily entailed evils which render good government for *all* classes a matter of great difficulty. There has been no disposition on the part of the British nation to retain Canada in leading-strings; the feelings of nationality always so strong in English hearts, has prevented the growth

of petty jealousies, and taught them to look with affectionate solicitude on the proceedings of a province which they have long considered an important and integral part of the British Empire. The queen and the Imperial Legislature, therefore, freely bestowed on Canada a more independent constitution than was ever before given by any parent state to its colony, and the Canadians now possess perfect freedom in the management of their local affairs. Instead of seeking to maintain a superiority in the Colonial Legislature, the Anglo-Saxon would do well to recollect the evils which resulted after the Norman conquest of England from the dominance of a race, and the indulgence of strong prejudices and cherished antipathies. Ireland, too, offers another illustration of the injurious consequences attendant on political or social subjugation, and a proof that the continuance of such a state of things is, in the long run, alike injurious to the dominant and to the subjugated race, and is, evidently, incompatible with national liberty or progress.

The present is a most critical period for Canada: everything, under Providence, now depends on tranquillity being not merely temporarily restored, but established on a satisfactory basis. Thus only can the extraordinary resources of the province be developed—the English capitalist induced to invest monies in projected railways and canals—and the respectable, intelligent, and order-loving class of emigrants to select Canada for the scene of present labour, the home of their families, and the country of their adoption. Great forbearance on all sides is absolutely essential, whether among political parties in England, or between those of Anglo-Saxon or of Norman descent—all are, in truth, citizens of the same state, with interests, which, to a great extent, are necessarily identical—their individual prosperity being closely allied with that of their common country, whose welfare must inevitably be impeded by their dissensions, and would be materially promoted by their cordial union. Many circumstances, but, above all, the growing influence of Christianity, and the extension of education founded on its principles, justify the hope that the Canadians, who have long been respected for their tried loyalty and exemplary conduct in a domestic sphere, may, ere long, prove their appreciation of the relative duties of public life—and to the high character they have long borne of faithful subjects, good

husbands, and affectionate fathers, add that of peaceable and united citizens. This seems to be the only requisite now wanting to the welfare of their highly-favoured country; and may heaven grant to all concerned in it, the self-denial, forbearance, and Christian charity necessary to its attainment.

GOVERNMENT.—When Canada was in the possession of the French, the form of government was a pure despotism. In 1774 the first British Act of Parliament was passed, fixing the boundaries of Canada—making provision for the better government of this part of his majesty's dominions, and vesting the authority in a governor, aided by a Council of not fewer than 17, and not more than 23 persons, who had power to frame ordinances, but not to levy taxes, except for making public roads, and erecting a few local structures. By this act the English criminal law was preserved; but it was enacted, that "in all matters of controversy, relative to property and civil rights, resort should be had to the rule and decision of the laws of Canada"—excepting, however, from this concession to French law, "lands which had been or should be granted in free and common soccage." The Roman Catholic religion, with all its immunities and rights, was secured to those of the Canadians who professed that faith.

After an interval of 17 years, this act was followed by Mr. Pitt's, or rather Lord Grenville's Act, styled the Constitution of 1791, under the provisions of which, Canada was divided into Upper and Lower provinces.

Eastern or Lower Canada received by this act a constitution, consisting of a Governor and Executive Council of 11 members, appointed by the crown (similar to the Privy Council in England)—a Legislative Council appointed by mandamus from the king, forming the second estate, and at that time consisting of 15 members, but subsequently increased to 34, and a Representative Assembly, or third estate, composed of 50 members, and consisting of 4 citizens from each of the cities of Quebec and Montreal, —3 burgesses, viz., 2 for the town of Three Rivers, and 1 for William Henry, and the remaining number divided over the province as knights of the shire, representing 20 counties, into which Lower Canada was divided. Population was partly made the basis for regulating the division: thus a small and thickly-peopled territory on the banks of the St. Lawrence was found sufficient to form a county, and in the more

distant parts, large areas were included in one county, in order to obtain the amount of population necessary to a representative election. The unsatisfactory manner in which this division into 21 counties operated, from its having regard to population and not to area, was felt after a few years; and it was set aside by the provincial act of 9 Geo. IV., which subdivided Eastern Canada into 10 counties. The constitution of the Eastern province as then regulated, may be thus summarily stated.

The authority of the sovereign in Canada was limited solely by the laws of Great Britain, and by the capitulations of the province. The supreme legislative authority was vested in the crown and in the two houses of the Imperial Parliament: this authority being limited by the capitulations, and by its own acts; the most remarkable of which is the act 18 Geo. III. cap. 12, confirmed by 31st Geo. III. cap. 13, which declares that "no taxes shall be imposed on the colonies but for the regulation of trade, and that the proceeds of such taxes shall be applied to, and for the use of the province, in such manner as shall be directed by any law or laws which may be made by his majesty, his heirs or successors, by and with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council and Assembly of the province."

The Provincial Legislature consisted of the sovereign, acting by the governor-general of the province; of a Legislative Council of 34 members, appointed by the crown for life; of a House of Assembly, of 88 members, elected for 4 years by British subjects resident within the province, under a 10s. tenure. The constituency of Eastern Canada was very widely diffused—among half a million of people there were at least 80,000 electors, of whom nine-tenths were proprietors of the soil; several counties had from 1 to 5,000 electors, all of whom were landed proprietors. The total number of proprietors of real property in 1831, was 57,891; and of persons holding property not otherwise than real, 25,208.

No religious disabilities existed as to electors; but clergymen or Jews were not eligible as representatives. The Assembly was empowered to make laws for the peace, welfare, and good government of the province, such laws not being inconsistent with the Act of 31 Geo. III., cap. 81. The elections were and still are conducted by open voting.

The governor, in the name of the sovereign, assembled, prorogued, and dissolved

the Parliament, which by the law was convened once in every twelve calendar months. All questions arising in either of the two houses, were decided by the open voting of the majority of the members present. The governor gave, withheld, or reserved for the further signification of the pleasure of the sovereign, the royal sanction to bills proposed by the two other branches. Laws assented to by the governor-general, must be disallowed by the crown within two years. The crown could not assent to any act or acts affecting the dues of the clergy of the church of Rome, or the established church of England within the province, or the provisions made for the same, or the enjoyment or exercise of any religious form or mode of worship, or creating penalties, burthens, disabilities, or disqualifications on that account, or granting, or imposing any new dues in favour of any ministers of any former mode of worship, or affecting the prerogative, touching the granting of the waste lands of the crown; until such acts shall have been at least 30 days before both Houses of the British Parliament, without either of the houses having addressed his majesty praying him not to sanction the same.

In Western or Upper Canada, the government had been administered since 1791 by a lieutenant-governor, Executive and Legislative Councils, and a House of Assembly or Representatives, under regulations similar to those in Eastern Canada. The Executive Council consisted of six members chosen by the crown.

When the rebellion broke out in Eastern Canada, in 1837, the Sovereign and Parliament of England, by virtue of its authority, suspended the constitution of the province, (as stated in the history of the colony, p. 30), and the re-union of Eastern and Western Canada having been agreed to by the Parliament of Western Canada, and by the Council of Eastern Canada, Lord Sydenham framed the act of union, which was adopted by the Imperial Legislature. Under the provisions of that act the affairs of the colony are now conducted; and the executive authorities are subject to the regulations laid down by Lord John Russell in October 1839—as stated at pages 39, 40—by which "responsible" or constitutional government has been fully granted to Canada. The act of union (c. xxxv., 3 and 4 Vic., 23rd of July, 1840), recites that for the good government of the provinces for securing the rights and liberties

of all classes of her majesty's subjects, it was necessary to re-unite the two provinces and form one province, for the purpose of executive government and legislation; such union to be declared by proclamation under the advice of her majesty's Privy Council. Various previous acts of Parliament were repealed, and the legislature of the United province was in future to be formed of one Legislative Council and one Assembly. The Legislative Council to consist of not fewer than 20 persons, of 21 years of age, subjects of the crown, and summoned for life by the governor-general, under authority of the sign manual of the sovereign. Such legislative councillor may resign, but if he absent himself from two successive sessions of the legislature of the province, "without the permission of her majesty, or of the governor of the said province, signified by the said governor to the Legislative Council, or shall take any oath or make any declaration or acknowledgment of allegiance, obedience, or adherence to any foreign prince or power, or shall do, concur in, or adopt any act whereby he may become a subject or citizen of any foreign state or power, or whereby he may become entitled to the rights, privileges, or immunities of a subject or citizen of any foreign state or power, or shall become bankrupt, or take the benefit of any law relating to insolvent debtors, or become a public defaulter, or be attainted of treason, or be convicted of felony, or of any infamous crime, his seat in such council shall thereby become vacant."

Any question arising respecting vacancies in the Legislative Council of the province of Canada, occasioned by any of the matters aforesaid, must be referred by the governor to the Legislative Council, to be by the said Legislative Council heard and determined, but the person respecting whose seat such question shall have arisen, or her majesty's attorney-general for the said province on her majesty's behalf, may appeal from the determination of the said Council in such case to her majesty, and the judgment of her majesty given with the advice of her Privy Council thereon shall be final and conclusive to all intents and purposes.

The governor has authority from time to time, by an instrument under the great seal of the said province, to appoint one member of the Legislative Council to be speaker thereof, and to remove him, and appoint another in his stead.

The presence of at least ten members of

the said Legislative Council, including the speaker, is necessary to constitute a meeting for the exercise of its powers; and all questions are decided by a majority of voices of the members present except the speaker; when the voices are equal the speaker has the casting vote.

For the purpose of constituting the Legislative Assembly of the province of Canada, the governor, from time to time, as occasion may require, in her majesty's name, and by an instrument or instruments under the great seal of the said province, has power to summon and call together a Legislative Assembly in and for the said province.

The qualification for voters is property to the yearly value of 40s. in the counties; of £5 in the towns, or paying rent to the amount of £10, annually. In Western Canada 41 electoral districts, containing 723,087 inhabitants, return 42 members to the House of Assembly; the city of Toronto sends two members; the cities of Hamilton and Kingston, each one, and the towns of London, Cornwall, Bytown, Niagara, and Brockville, each one member. The North, South, East, and West Ridings of York return each one member; each of the other counties of the province are represented by one member. In Eastern Canada, 768,334 inhabitants return 42 members to the House of Assembly, from 40 electoral districts. Montreal and Quebec return each two members, the towns of Three Rivers and Sherbrooke, each one, and every county one member.

The property qualification of a representative is the possession for his own use of £500, in lands or tenements, over and above all rents, charges, mortgages, and incumbrances. The Assembly is convened for a term of 1 years, and must be called together once in each year; 20 members constitute a quorum, and the Assembly chooses its own speaker, who has a casting vote. By the act of union it is declared "that within the province of Canada, her majesty shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the said Legislative Council and Assembly, to make laws for the peace, welfare, and good government of the province of Canada, such laws not being repugnant to this act, or to such parts of the said act passed in the thirty-first year of the reign of his said late Majesty as are not hereby repealed, or to any act of Parliament made or to be made, and not hereby repealed, which does or shall, by express enact-

ment or by necessary intendment, extend to the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, or to either of them, or to the province of Canada; and that all such laws being passed by the said Legislative Council and Assembly, and assented to by her majesty, or assented to in her majesty's name by the governor of the province of Canada, shall be valid and binding to all intents and purposes within the province of Canada."

The members of the House of Assembly, are allowed by grants of the legislature, an indemnity of 10s. currency per diem, and 4s. per league as travelling expenses from their places of residence, to where the sittings of the legislature are held. The session of Parliament generally lasts three months, seldom more than four, and is held during the winter. The salary of the speaker of the House of Assembly is £900, voted annually by the Provisional Legislature.

The Legislative Council at present consists of about 45 members, of whom 12 were added by Lord Elgin, 6 by Lord Metcalfe, 5 by Sir C. Bagot, and the others nominated by Lord Sydenham. The crown has an unlimited power of nomination. Nearly half the Legislative Council consists of gentlemen of French origin. The Executive Council comprises 11 ministerial officers—including two secretaries, and two attorneys and solicitors-general for Eastern and for Western Canada—a receiver-general, inspector-general, president of committees, and commissioner of crown lands, and speaker, all appointed by the governor, but who must be possessed of seats in the House of Assembly in order to make them responsible to the people, and produce harmony between the executive and the legislature. The governor of Canada is governor-general of all the British possessions in North America, and commander-in-chief of all the forces there, but in the latter capacity he only acts ministerially.

Governors of Canada.

- 1663. Sieur de Mézy.
- 1665. Sieur de Courcelles.
- 1672. Sieur de Frontenac.
- 1682. Sieur de la Barre.
- 1685. Marquis de Denonville.
- 1689. Sieur de Frontenac.
- 1699. Chevalier de Callières.
- 1703. Marquis de Vaudreuil.
- 1726. Marquis de Beauharnois.
- 1747. Comte de la Galissonnière.
- 1749. Sieur de la Jonquière.
- 1752. Marquis du Quesne de Memneville.
- 1755. Sieur de Vaudreuil de Cavagnal.
- 1765. James Murray.

- 1766. Paulus Emilius Irving (President).
- General Guy Carleton.
- 1770. Hector T. Crémahé (President).
- 1771. General Guy Carleton.
- 1778. Frederick Haldimand.
- 1771. Henry Hamilton (Lieutenant-Governor).
- 1775. Henry Hope (Lieutenant-Governor).
- 1776. Lord Dorchester (Sir Guy Carleton).
- 1791. Colonel Clarke (Lieutenant-Governor).
- 1793. Lord Dorchester.
- 1796. Robert Prescott.
- 1799. Sir R. S. Milnes, Bart. (Lieutenant-Governor).
- 1805. Hon. Thomas Dunn (President).
- 1807. Sir J. H. Craig, K.B.
- 1811. Hon. Thomas Dunn (President).
- Sir George Prevost.
- 1815. Sir G. Drummond, G.C.B. (Administrator).
- 1816. John Wilson (Administrator).
- Sir J. C. Sherbrooke.
- 1818. Duke of Richmond.
- 1819. Hon. James Monk (President).
- 1820. Sir Peregrine Maitland.
- Earl Dalhousie, G.C.B.
- 1821. Sir F. N. Burton (Lieutenant-Governor).
- 1825. Earl Dalhousie.
- 1828. Sir James Kempt, G.C.B. (Administrator).
- 1830. Lord Alymer, G.C.B. (Administrator).
- 1835. Earl of Gosford.
- 1838. Major-General Sir John Colborne (Administrator).
- Earl of Durham (six months).
- Major-General Sir John Colborne (Administrator).
- 1839. Right Hon. P. Thomson (afterwards Lord Sydenham).

Provinces United.

- 1841. Lord Sydenham.
- Major-General Sir R. Jackson (Administrator).
- 1842. Sir Charles Bagot.
- 1843. Sir Charles (afterwards Baron) Metcalfe.
- 1845. Earl Cathcart.
- 1847. Earl of Elgin and Kincardine.

Lieutenant-Governors of Upper or Western Canada.

- 1792. Colonel Simcoe.
- 1796. Hon. Peter Russell (President).
- 1799. Lieut.-Gen. Peter Hunter.
- 1805. Hon. A. Grant (President).
- 1806. Francis Gore.
- 1811. Major-Gen. Sir Isaac Brock (President).
- 1812. Major-Gen. Sir R. H. Sheaffe, Bart. (President).
- 1813. Maj.-Gen. F. Baron de Rottenberg (President).
- Lieut.-Gen. Sir Gordon Drummond, K.C.B.
- 1815. Lieut.-Gen. Sir George Murray, Bart.
- Major-Gen. Sir F. P. Robinson, K.C.B.
- Francis Gore.
- 1817. Hon. Samuel Smith (Administrator).
- 1818. Major-Gen. Sir Peregrine Maitland.
- 1820. Hon. Samuel Smith (Administrator).
- Major-Gen. Sir Peregrine Maitland.
- 1828. Major-Gen. Sir John Colborne.
- 1836. Sir F. B. Head.
- 1838. Major-Gen. Sir G. Arthur.

THE LAWS now in force in Eastern or Lower Canada are:—1st. The acts of the British Parliament which extend to the colonies: 2nd. Capitulations and treaties: 3rd. The laws and customs of Canada,

founded principally on the jurisprudence of the Parliament of Paris, as it stood in 1663, the edicts of the French kings, and their colonial authorities, and the Roman civil law: 4th. The criminal law of England, as it stood in 1774, and as explained by subsequent statutes: 5th. The ordinances of the governor and council, established by the act of the above year: 6th. The acts of the Provincial Legislature since 1792. These laws are executed in her majesty's name, and in virtue of her commission and instructions, by the governor, or person administering the government, through the agency of several inferior officers, all of whom are appointed during pleasure. The governor besides possesses all other powers and prerogatives generally, which her majesty may legally enjoy, and may delegate to him. The *judiciary* consists of a High Court of Appeal, a Court of Queen's Bench in Eastern and Western Canada, presided over by a chief justice in each province, and several puisné justices. There are provincial courts for trials of causes above £10.

There are also a Court of Vice-Admiralty, Quarter Sessions, and other minor tribunals for civil matters. The Court of Appeal, the highest legal tribunal in the province, consists of the governor, president *ex officio*, the chief justices of the province, all the members of the Executive Council, five of whom, including the president, are a competent quorum to hear and determine appeals from judgment pronounced in the Court of Queen's Bench in civil matters. Should the matter in dispute exceed £500 in value, an appeal lies to the queen and Privy Council; if below that sum, the decision of the Canadian High Court of Appeal is final.

The Canadian Court of Queen's Bench combines a jurisdiction similar to those of the Queen's Bench and Common Pleas at Westminster; it has distinct civil and criminal terms, and an appellate as well as an original jurisdiction; appeals lying, in certain cases, from the decisions of the provincial judges, or inferior courts, over each of which a puisné judge presides.

The duties of the Vice-Admiralty Court devolve, by commission, on a Judge Surrogate, who is also a judge of the Court of Queen's Bench.

The Court of Escheats was created by the 10th sec. 6 Geo. II. c. 59; it consists of Commissioners appointed by the governor to inquire, on information being filed by the

attorney-general, into the liability of lands to be escheated, by reason of the non-performance of the conditions on which they were granted. The decision is given by a verdict of a jury composed of twelve men, summoned in the usual way; and the lands forfeited become re-vested in the Crown.

The other courts being similarly constituted to those of the same name in England, require no explanation. The police of the country is supervised by unpaid justices of the peace (the members of the Executive and Legislative Councils, the judges, &c., are everywhere justices of the peace *ex officio*). Trial by jury is universal in all criminal cases; but in civil matters the appeal to this mode of trial in Eastern Canada is confined by statute to certain cases, viz., the demand must exceed £10, the parties being merchants or traders, and the subject matter grounded on debts, promises, contracts, and agreements, of a mercantile nature only; or else the action must arise from personal wrongs, to be compensated in damages; in all other causes the Bench are judges both upon the law and the fact; a very small portion of these cases are tried by jury.

The criminal law of Canada is in general conformity to that of England, with some provincial statutes not repugnant thereto. The admiralty and commercial laws are also English. In the civil law the proceedings are carried on both in the French and English languages, and it is not unusual to have half the jury French and the other half English.

Litigation is frequent; there are about 200 lawyers in Eastern Canada on the rolls of the Court of Queen's Bench, who are solicitors and proctors as well as barristers; the notaries are conveyancers in Eastern Canada, and form a distinct class; they are about 300 in number. In the Quebec district alone there are 45 barristers, 13 solicitors, and 138 notaries. In Montreal district—26 barristers, 60 solicitors, and 164 notaries. In Three Rivers district—72; making a total of 358 lawyers.

In Western Canada the laws are wholly English, and administered by a Court of Queen's Bench, presided over by a chief and 6 puisné judges. The Courts of Quarter Sessions and Requests are held as in England. There are about 500 unpaid magistrates.

The *judicial establishment* consists, in Eastern Canada, of a Chief Justice of a Court of Queen's Bench at Quebec, and 3

Puisné Judges; a Resident Judge at Three Rivers; a Provincial Judge at St. Francis; and 2 District Judges at Gaspé. There is also a Vice-Admiralty Court, with a Judge and Registrar. In Western Canada the judicial establishment consists of a Chief Justice and 4 Puisné of a Court of Queen's Bench; a Vice-Chancellor and Registrar of a Court of Chancery; and a Court of Probate. There are Circuit Courts in Eastern Canada, and District Courts in Western Canada. In Western Canada there are 4 Commissioners of Bankrupts, independent of the District Judges; in Eastern Canada the Judges appoint Bankrupt Commissioners from barristers of five years' standing, or the District Judges fulfil the duty of Commissioners.

Municipal Institutions of Canada.—It has been truly remarked, that "a more complete municipal system than that in operation in this province, has never been established. The powers conferred on each district are very great, but have been always exercised with discretion. The system was established by Lord Sydenham, to remove from the imperial and the provincial governments the odium which frequently attached to them, in consequence of the legislation and appropriations which affected particular localities. The corporations are composed of members from each township, so many townships forming a district. These form a council, presided over by a warden appointed by the crown. They meet quarterly in the respective court-houses of each district, and determine on all *local* improvements, roads, harbours, bridges, schools, paving, lighting, cleansing, &c. The vote for township councillor is every householder, and the qualification of a councillor is real estate value £500. The improvements in the respective districts that have been effected since their establishment are quite surprising. Their powers are great, but in no one instance have they been abused. It is in miniature the operation of the government of the respective States of North America, forming the general government of the United States of America."

The Canadians enjoy in its fullest extent the blessing of a constitutional government; they have entire control over their own revenues, and may enact whatever laws are required for their country, provided only that such laws be not injurious to other parts of the empire. Let then the people of *Western* as well as of *Eastern* Canada

avoid all measures and proceedings calculated to diminish the authority and government that has sprung from themselves, and abstain from forming associations, whether under the title of "convention," "league," or any other name, whose tendency is to control the provincial legislature. They would do well to remember and act on the advice of a truly great man, George Washington, who, in his parting address to his countrymen, on the 17th of September, 1796, when declining to be again elected president of the United States republic, adverted to the obedience owed by every individual to the established government, which they had contributed to form, thus emphatically warned the Americans against "conventions," and stated their results as testified in the history of all nations:—

"All obstructions to the execution of the laws, all combinations AND ASSOCIATIONS, under whatever plausible character, with the real character to DIRECT, CONTROL, COUNTERACT OR AWE the REGULAR DELIBERATION AND ACTION of the CONSTITUTED AUTHORITIES, are DESTRUCTIVE of this FUNDAMENTAL principle, and of FATAL TENDENCY. They serve to organise faction, to give it an artificial and extraordinary force; to put in the place of the delegated will of the nation, the will of a party, often a small, but ARTIFUL and ENTERPRISING MINORITY OF THE COMMUNITY; and, according to the alternate triumphs of different parties, to make the public administration the mirror of the ill-concerted and incongruous projects of faction, rather than the organ of consistent and wholesome plans, digested by common counsels, and modified by mutual interests."

"However combinations and associations of the above description may now and then answer popular ends, they are likely, in the course of time and things, to become potent engines, BY WHICH CUNNING, AMBITIOUS AND UNPRINCIPLED MEN WILL BE ENABLED TO SUBVERT THE POWER OF THE PEOPLE, AND TO USURP FOR THEMSELVES THE REINS OF GOVERNMENT; destroying afterwards the very engines which have lifted them to unjust dominion."

Laws of the Feudal Tenures.—When Canada was first settled by the French, the feudal tenure was in full vigour on the continent of Europe, and was naturally transplanted by the colonizers to the new world. The king of France, as feudal lord, granted to nobles and respectable families, or to officers of the army, large tracts of land, termed seignories, the proprietors of which were and still are termed seignors; these possessions are held immediately from the Sovereign, *en fief*, or *en roture*, on condition of the proprietor rendering fealty and homage, on accession to seignorial property; and in the event of a transfer, by sale, or gift, or otherwise (except in hereditary succession), the seignory is subject to the pay-

ment of a *quint*, or fifth part of the whole purchase-money, which, if paid by the purchaser immediately, entitles him to the *rabat*, or a reduction of two-thirds of the *quint*.

Quints are a fifth part of the purchase-money of an estate held *en fief*, which must be paid by the purchaser to the feudal lord, that is, the sovereign. If the feudal lord believes the *fief* to be sold under value, he can take the estate to himself, by paying the purchaser the price he gave for it, together with all reasonable expenses. The committee of the House of Commons in their Report on the affairs of Canada, in 1828, recommended the crown to relinquish the *quints*. *Reliefe* is the rent or revenue of one year for mutation fine, when an estate is inherited only by collateral descent. *Lods et ventes* are fines of alienation of one-twelfth part of the purchase-money paid to the seigneur by the purchaser on the transfer of property, in the same manner as *quints* are paid to the sovereign on the mutation of *fief*; and are held *en roture*, which is an estate to which heirs succeed equally. *Franc alev noble* is a *fief*, or freehold estate, held subject to no seignorial rights or duties, and acknowledging no lord but the sovereign. The succession to *fiefs* is different from that of property held *en roture* or by *villainage*. The eldest son, by right, takes the chateau, and the yard adjoining it; an *arpent* of the garden which joins the manor-house, and the mills, ovens, or presses, within the seignory, belong to him; but the profit arising from these is to be divided among the other heirs. Females have no precedence of right, and when there are only daughters, the *fief* is equally divided among them. When there are only two sons, the eldest takes two-thirds of the lands, besides the chateau, mill, &c., and the younger one-third. When there are several sons, the elder claims half the lands, and the rest have the other half divided among them. *Censive* is an estate held in the feudal manner, subject to the seignorial fines or dues. All the Canadian *habitans*, small farmers, are *censitaires*. Property, according to the laws of Canada, is either *propre*, that is held by descent, or *acquits*, which expresses being acquired by industry or other means. *Communauté du bien* is partnership in property by marriage; for the wife, by this law, becomes an equal partner in whatever the husband possessed before, and acquires after, marriage, and the husband is placed in the same position in respect to the wife's dowry.

This law might operate as well as most general laws do, if both *mari* and *femme* died on the same day; but as that is seldom the case very unhappy consequences have arisen from it. For instance, when the wife dies before the husband, the children may claim half of the father's property, as heirs to the mother; and the mother's relations have often persuaded, and sometimes compelled them so to do.

The *dot* or dowry, is the property which the wife puts into the *communauté du bien*: movable or immovable property, falling to her by descent, is a *propre*, and does not merge in the *communauté*. Dower in Canada is either customary or stipulate. The first consists of half the property which the husband was possessed of at the time of marriage, and half of all the property which he may inherit or acquire—of this the wife has the use for life, and the children may claim it at her death. If they be not of age, the wife's relations, as guardians of the children, can take it out of the father's hands, and may compel him to sell his property to make a division. Stipulated dower is a portion which the husband gives instead of the customary dower.

The Canadian farms are remarkable for the small breadth of the farm on the bank of the river, and its great depth inland; the latter being often in proportion to the former as 60 to 1, namely, half an arpent broad in front of the St. Lawrence, or other river, and 30 arpents in depth.

Those farmers who hold land from the seigneur *en route*, and who are termed *tenanciers* or *censitaires*, are subject to certain conditions, viz., a small annual rent, from 2s. 6d. to 5s. (or perhaps more of late years) for each arpent in front; to this are added some articles of provision annually—such as a pig or goose, or a few fowls, or a bushel of wheat, according to the means of the farmer, who is also bound to grind his corn at the *molin banal*, or the seigneur's mill, where one-fourteenth is taken for the lord's use, as *mouture* or payment for grinding. The *lods et ventes* form another part of the seigneur's revenue: it consists of a right to one-twelfth part of the purchase-money of every estate within his seignory, that changes its owner by sale, or other means equivalent to sale: this twelfth to be paid by the purchaser is exclusive of the sum agreed on between him and the seller, and if promptly paid, a reduction of one-fourth is usually made, in the same manner as

two-thirds of the *quints* due to the crown are deducted on prompt payment. On such an occasion a privilege remains with the seigneur, but is seldom exercised, called the *droit de retrait*, which confers the right of pre-emption at the highest price offered, within 40 days after the sale has taken place.

All the fisheries within the seignories contribute also to the lord's income, as he receives a share of the fish caught, or an equivalent in money: the seigneur is also privileged to fell timber any where within his seignory, for the purpose of erecting mills, constructing new or repairing old roads, or for other works of public and general utility. In addition to the foregoing burdens on the farmer, he is, if a Roman Catholic, bound to pay to his curate one twenty-sixth part of all grain produced, and to have occasional assessments levied on him for building and repairing churches, parsonage houses, &c.

The duties of the seigneur to his tenants are also strictly defined—he is bound in some instances to open roads to the remote parts of his fief, and to provide mills for the grinding of the feudal tenants' corn—he cannot dispose by sale of forest lands, but is bound to concede them; and upon his refusal to do so, the applicant may obtain from the crown the concession he requires, under the usual seigniorial stipulations, in which case the rents and dues appertain to the sovereign.

According to the *Coutume de Paris*, the "Franc alev roturier est terre sans justice ou seigneurie pour laquelle le detenteur ne doit cens, rentes, lods et ventes, ni autres redevances;" and the soccage tenure, like *franc alev roturier*, leaves the farmer or landholder wholly unshackled by any conditions whatsoever, as to rents, corvees, mutation fines, *banale* (corn grinding obligation), without in fact any other obligation than allegiance to the sovereign, and obedience to the laws. The quantity of land thus granted in Eastern Canada amounts to upwards of 7,000,000 acres—while under the seigniorial grants nearly 11,000,000 acres are held by a large number of small proprietors.

The British government have long been desirous of converting the seigniorial into soccage tenures, but nothing compulsory has been attempted. In 1825 an act was passed (6 Geo. IV. c. lix.) for the gradual extinction of the feudal rights, and enabling seigneurs to release themselves from the

feudal burthens (*quints*, &c.) due to the crown, and for granting their lands in free and common soccage to tenants, who were also to be released from their feudal burthens; which act, while it provided for the voluntary surrender by the seigneur of his rights, also gave the tenant in fief a power to claim exemption of burthens from the seigneur; who, on refusal, was subject to be impleaded in a court of law, and bound, on a commutation fixed and given, to grant his lands on soccage tenures. But this act has, with two exceptions, been of no effect; the Canadians are peculiarly attached to ancient customs—they contend that a conversion of tenure is equivalent to a conversion of law, as the descent by inheritance would be altered, and with it the whole body of the law applicable to real property. It is, therefore, probable that the old tenures, *en roture*, will remain, and those in soccage are not likely to be converted into the former, at least, by the present generation.

The Position and Extent of the Seigniorial Grants are stated to be:—

Territorial Division.	Number of Seignories.	Extent of Seigniorial Grants.		Almost unfit for cultivation in the Seignories and Fiefs.
		Arpents.	Acres.	
Quebec, including Anticosti and other Isles	79	5,639,319	5,656,699	2,600,000
Montreal and Islands	63	3,269,966	2,786,011	500,000
Three Rivers and St. Francis, &c.	25	1,220,308	1,039,707	400,000
Gaspé and Isles	1	1,547,386	1,318,117	600,000
Total . . .	168	11,676,679	10,800,534	4,100,000

RELIGION.—The prevailing form of Religion in Eastern Canada is that of the Romish church, whose clergy are educated in Canada, and have no civil or secular connexion with the pope; they are not paid by government, but have for their support the twenty-sixth part of all the grain raised on the lands of the catholics. Hay and potatoes are exempted from the charge, and if a catholic turn protestant, or sell his lands to a protestant, the estate is no longer subject to this moderate burden. The church is governed by a bishop (a Canadian born and educated), who receives, in addition to the rent of some lands of little value, a stipend of £1000 per annum, from Great Britain. The incomes of the *cures* average £300 per annum, by which

they are enabled to live respectably, and even hospitably; and so long as they confine themselves to their religious duties, they invariably meet with the respect which piety and philanthropy everywhere deserve. Great attention is paid to the observances of religion by people of every persuasion, in both Eastern and Western Canada.

The revenues of the Romish Church in Eastern Canada are considerable.

Mr. Adam Thom, in the letters written under the signature of "Camillus," in 1839, stated their seigniorial rights to extend over:

	Sq. miles.
1. The island and city of Montreal	200
2. The Lake of Two Mountains and augmentation	140
3. St. Sulpice	110
[Belong to Seminary of Montreal.]	
4. Chateauguay (Grey Sisters)	54
5. Isle-Jesus (Seminary of)	50
6. Cote de Beauport (Quebec.) } . . .	900
7. Isle aux Coudres }	10
8. St. Jean (Ursal. of Three Rivers) . .	20
9. St. Augustin (Religieuses de l'hôp. of Quebec, 34	
10. D'Orsanville (Religieuses)	4
	1522

Besides the above-mentioned rights, extending over nearly a million of acres, these and other ecclesiastical institutions possess property of great value in Quebec and Montreal, and elsewhere.

Several religious communities exist, viz.: the *Hotel Dieu de Montreal*, founded in 1664; the *Congregation de Notre Dame de Montreal*; the *Hopital-general de Montreal*; the *Hotel Dieu de Quebec*; the *Ursulines de Quebec*, and the *Hopital-general de Quebec*; all these establishments have *novices* and *postulants*, and it is but justice to add, that the nunneries of Eastern Canada are exemplary in their management, and remarkable for the piety and charity of their inmates. There are several missions, protestant and Roman catholic, among the Indians at their different stations, especially in Western Canada. There is no dominant church in Canada.

The number and designation of the ministers of the Christian religion in Canada, are stated in the official returns made to government, to have been as follows in 1847:—

Church of England in Eastern Canada.—A lord bishop of Montreal, and an archdeacon of Quebec. Of parochial and other clergy in Quebec district, about 15; ditto of Three Rivers, 4; ditto of Montreal, 42; ditto of St. Francis, 10; ditto of Gaspé, 3; the congregations are, in number 180, and the ministers

officiating, whose names and stations are furnished in the returns, 75. There are other clergymen, who, though they have not any distinct charge, yet officiate in several places within the province. One is a French protestant missionary.

In the interesting works issued by the truly Christian "Society for the propagation of the Gospel," it is stated, that the province of Canada was first formed into a diocese in the year 1793, under the episcopal superintendence of Dr. Jacob Mountain. In 1826 the Hon. Charles Stewart, the devoted missionary of St. Armand, succeeded to the bishopric of Quebec—and when he was compelled by illness, brought on by his many apostolic labours and journeyings, to return to England in 1836, Dr. G. J. Mountain was consecrated for the administration of the diocese, under the title of bishop of *Montreal*—which title he still retains—though the diocese is properly called the diocese of *Quebec*. This enormous see was divided in the year 1839, when archdeacon Strachan was raised to the bishopric of *Toronto*, comprising the province of *Upper Canada*, or, as it is now called, *Western Canada*.

The diocese of Quebec runs along a narrow strip of land of 600 miles in length, on both banks of the St. Lawrence, and contains an area of 200,000 square miles. The population is estimated at 650,000, about two-thirds of whom are French Roman catholics. The number of English clergy is between 70 and 80.

Church of England in Western Canada.—A lord bishop of Toronto, 2 archdeacons, and 116 parochial clergy, with an equal number of congregations scattered throughout the different districts; of the 116 parochial ministers, 51 are regularly inducted rectors. In addition to the regular station services, almost every clergyman has two or three out services; some being several miles from the chief station. Parsonage houses are increasing by means of private endowments, and by the aid of the Church Diocesan Society; the glebes average about 400 acres (of wild land chiefly) attached to each rectory.

The churches in large towns are spacious; in the districts they contain generally from 300 to 600, and are well attended. Some of the clergy receive allowances from government; others from the "Society for the propagation of the gospel in Foreign Parts," and others are supported by the voluntary contributions of the parishioners.

The Roman Catholic Church in Eastern

Canada consists of three divisions; there are about 300 churches to a population of 600,000. — Montreal district, 2 bishops, 7 vicars-general, and 191 priests. Quebec district, an archbishop, a bishop, 6 vicars-general, and 115 priests. Three Rivers district, 11 priests. Gaspé district, 16. Total, 1 archbishop, 3 bishops, 13 vicars-general, and 379 priests, exclusive of teachers at various colleges.

The Roman Catholic Church in Western Canada consists of 2 bishops, a coadjutor-bishop, 1 archdeacon, 1 rural dean, and 56 priests.

The government allows £1000 a year for the bishop of Quebec, and a sum of about £1,666 is paid by government, to the Roman catholic priests in Western Canada annually.

The Presbyterian Church of Canada, in connexion with the church of Scotland, has 6 presbyteries, and 57 ministers.

The Free Presbyterian Church of Canada—Seven presbyteries, and 51 ministers.

The United Presbyterian Church of Canada.—Five presbyteries, and 33 ministers. Total, 141 ministers in East and West Canada.

The Wesleyan Methodist Churches in Canada, are divided into 6 districts, and have 179 ministers. The same persuasion of the *New Connexion*, have 37 ministers; the *Congregational* denomination, 31; the *Baptists*, 108 ministers.

The relative numbers of each religious persuasion are given in the section on population.

The variety of religious sects in Western Canada, will be seen by the following general numerical return of the several religious bodies in Upper Canada, for the year 1839:

Church of England, 61,788. Methodists, British connexion, 15,795; episcopal, 7,116; Canadian Wesleyan, 2,210; primitive, 106; under the general term of methodists, without distinction, 19,710. Presbyterians, Church of Scotland, 31,448; seceders from the Church of Scotland, 1,507; independents, 777; congregationalists, 701; nonconformists, 18; under the general term of presbyterians, without reference to sects, 31,308. Roman catholics, 29,562. Baptists, returned under the general term of baptists, without reference to distinction, 4,626; open communion, 1,088; close communion, 3,579; free-will, 621. Lutherans, 2,283; Dutch reformed church, 11; menonists, 2,674; tinkers, 925; Moravians, 7; quakers, 1,166; society of peace, 11; universalists, 416;

restorationists, 18; unitarians, 59; latitudinarians, 6; deists, 1; free-thinkers, 75; Irvingites, 188; reformers, 13; christians, 1,291; bible christians, 270; disciples, 336; mormons, 210; other denominations, 6,243; no profession, 27,301.

The payments for ministers of religion out of the public funds, are as follows:—

The Church of England in Western Canada receives £6,668 (from the clergy reserves); this sum provides £100 to £170 a year, for 36 clergymen. Eleven presbyterian ministers, in connexion with the Church of Scotland, receive £641. Nine ministers of late synod of Western Canada, £572. The Roman catholic clergy in Western Canada, £1,500. Eight presbyterian ministers in Eastern Canada, receive £285, and the Roman catholic bishop of Quebec, £1000. The Church of England in Eastern Canada receives £3,020. The total charge for the ecclesiastical establishment of Canada for 1847, was £13,725; of this sum, £3,620 for the bishop and ministers of the Church of England in Eastern Canada, is paid from the military chest, and ceases with the lives of the present parties. The stipend of £1000 a year to the Roman catholic bishop of Quebec, and £100 a year to the presbyterian minister at Argenteuil, are paid from the military chest.

EDUCATION.—Laudable and energetic efforts are now making in Canada, for the education of the people, in Western Canada especially. A new school act was brought into operation in 1817, and the returns under it are yet imperfect for 1847, but the following details are taken from the report of Mr. E. Ryerson, the chief superintendent of schools:—

School Sections, are the smallest municipal school divisions provided for by law, each consisting of such a section of the country as is considered suitable for a school. In each section three persons are elected trustees by the householders, and constitute a corporation for the management of the common school affairs of such section. One of the members of the school corporation retires from office each year, so that each trustee is elected for three years. Or such schools in Western Canada, there are 2727; from 327 sections, no returns received; number of qualified teachers, 2812; number of teachers without certificates, 216. Of 3028 teachers, 2356 were males, and 663 females. Average yearly salaries of teachers £37; number of pupils in the section

schools 124,829, of whom 65,575 were boys, and 55,254 girls. Upwards of 295 *different authors*, or text books are in use in these schools, viz., in spelling 13; reading 107; arithmetic 35; geography 20; history 21; grammar 16; natural philosophy 7; chemistry 5; geometry 2; mental philosophy 3; rhetoric 3; book-keeping 5; botany 2; algebra 2; natural history 1; physiology 2; composition 1; penmanship 4; moral philosophy 2; surveying 3; mensuration 2; declamation 2; dictionaries 4; &c.

Book-keeping is taught in 523 schools; mensuration in 294; algebra in 144; elements of natural philosophy in 77; Latin and Greek in 41; and French in 60 schools; 41,686 pupils study arithmetic; 13,743 English grammar; 10,563 geography; 45,467 writing. The bible and testament are used in 1782 schools,—nearly two-thirds of the common-schools in Upper Canada. Of 2572 school-houses, 49 are brick, 84 stone, 1028 frame, and 1399 log; 1403 schools are freehold, 697 leased, and 171 rented; 699 are in good repair, 817 in ordinary, 347 in a bad condition; 1705 have only one room, 98 more than one room; 1125 are suitably furnished with desks, seats, &c. The total amount of council assessment for 1847, was £22,955; collected by trustees' rate-bills £30,543; legislative grant £21,000. The total amount of money derived from all sources, and expended for the payment of salaries of common school teachers, for 1847, was £77,599. This does not include the moneys expended for the erection, repairs, furnishing, and warming of school-houses, &c. Upper Canada expends of the public moneys, for the common school education of little more than half a million of people, as much as is spent in Ireland for eight million of people.

In Western Canada there are 48 colleges, academies, and high schools. The "Blue Book" for 1847 states the number of school sections for that year, in Western Canada, at 2925; schools reported 2589; children between 5 and 16 taught, 101,912. Legislative school grant £20,851; amount assessed by municipal council £21,871. Paid teachers from school fund £38,521; from rate-bill £29,385; total £67,906.

In Eastern Canada the number of schools under the control of the commissioners for six months, in 1847, was 1611, and there were 21 dissentient; number of children educated 60,685. The allowancees for six months were £14,500. The schools are dis-

tributed over 36 counties in Eastern Canada. There are 65 colleges, academies, and high schools.

The votes and grants for education, in 1847, were, in Eastern Canada, £38,888, of which the Jesuit estates yielded £1567. The amount of £32,978 was voted by the legislature for common schools, and £1352 for different colleges in Eastern Canada. The educational votes for 1847, by the Canadian legislature, for Western Canada, amounted to £28,845, of which £23,270 was for common schools.

The lands granted to the Jesuits by the French government, and which lapsed to the British crown on the demise of the last of the Jesuits, in 1800, have been granted for purposes of Education. Under a very bad system of management, these lands did not yield from 1800 to 1831, more than £50,000.

According to a return of the institutions for the instruction of youth in Eastern Canada, it appears that there are the following school foundations:—

"PROTESTANT.—1. Royal Grammar School, Quebec; 200*l.* a year, and 90*l.* a year school-house rent, from Jesuits' estates. Twenty free scholars, 11 pay for their tuition; all day-scholars. Terms: under 19, £8; above 12 and under 13, £10 per an.; above 13, £12 per an. French and English taught; course of instruction as in the grammar schools in the United Kingdom.

"2. Royal Grammar School, Montreal; £200 a year, and £54 a year school-house rent, from Jesuits' estates. Twenty free scholars admitted, 15 scholars pay for their education; all day scholars. Terms: highest £10; lowest £8 per an.; instruction as in grammar-school at Quebec; and this school is in possession of an extensive apparatus for experiments in natural philosophy.

"3. Seminary at Chambly; contributions of students; a private institution lately established under the patronage of the Lord Bishop of Quebec. Board and tuition according to age of student, £10, £50, and £75 per an.; day-scholars £15 and £20 per an. There are 17 boarders and 9 day-scholars. Those who pay £75 per an. are young men studying for holy orders, and others finishing their education.

"CATHOLIC.—1. Seminary of Quebec; no revenues specifically appropriated to the purposes of education, but possessed of several estates. Value, made many years ago, computed at £1,249 a year, besides large contributions in grain, and the *lods et ventes* on mutations of property, which amount to a considerable sum. Attended by 188 students; the terms for tuition and board £17:10*s.* per an.; for tuition only, £1 per an. Poor children instructed gratis. The Seminary of Quebec was erected by letters patent of the French crown, dated in April, 1663.

"2. Seminary at Montreal; in possession of estates valued many years ago at about £2,000 a year, besides large contributions in grain, and *lods et ventes* on mutations of property, which in the seignior's of

Montreal, comprehending the whole of the town, must amount to a large sum. Attended by 260 students; terms for board and tuition, per an. £21, for tuition only, £1:15s. Instruction as at the Seminary of Quebec. The ecclesiastics of St. Sulpice, at Paris, were authorized to establish a seminary at Montreal, and allowed to hold the island of Montreal in mortmain, by letters patent of the French crown, dated in May, 1677.

"Seminary at Nicolet; supported principally by private contributions. The number of students, or the price paid for tuition not known.

"Seminaries at St. Hyacinthe, at Chambly, and at College of St. Ann, which receive legislative grants."

In several of the colleges there are professors of divinity, medicine, anatomy, philosophy, mathematics, &c., and the chairs are ably filled.

There is a Quebec literary and historical society, and a museum of natural history at Montreal; a medico-chirurgical society, an agricultural association, a mechanic's institute, &c.

THE PRESS.—This powerful adjunct of civilization, and protector of individual as well as of national liberty, is making rapid progress in Canada; where the journals are unstamped, the paper without an excisable duty, and the advertisements exempt from tax. I have no separate return of the increase of the press in each province, but in both together, the number of newspapers was, in 1827, 17; in 1828, 20; in 1829, 27; in 1830, 30; and in 1831, 37. I think I may add that the present number is about 50, namely 20 for Eastern and 30 for Western Canada. There are several daily papers; some of the journals in Eastern Canada are entirely in the French language. Both the English and French papers are conducted with ability, but, as may be expected, evince strong party feelings. They are well supplied with advertisements, and, independent of their value as political engines, are considered good commercial speculations.

CRIME.—The absence of extreme poverty, the certain reward of industry, and the extension of Christian education, are sure preventives of crime. From 1828 to 1838, the number of prisoners in the gaols of Eastern Canada, for all offences throughout the year, did not average 300 persons annually. The returns to the Board of Registration and Statistics for Eastern and Western Canada, in 1849, shows the state of crime from 1811, to 1847, inclusive. The returns are not very complete, but they show a limited amount of crime in a population of one and a half million.

Commitments.	1811	1812	1813	1814	1815	1816	1817
Offences against the Person	4	6	29	13	11	14	12
Murder	1	1	8	1	9	3	4
Manslaughter	2	0	1	3	2	2	2
Rape	2	0	2	1	3	2	2
Offences against Property	53	64	101	132	140	119	93
Larceny	40	37	65	81	92	68	52
Forgery	1	9	1	6	3	2	4
Horse stealing	4	3	11	8	12	14	12
Felony	4	9	5	11	6	4	7
Burglary	2	2	3	3	8	4	5
Unclassed Crimes. . . .	2	1	5	4	6	2	2
From Eastern Canada }	59	15	30	31	52	17	38
" Western Canada }	59	156	105	118	105	88	69
Grand Total	59	71	135	149	157	135	107

These returns are exclusive of military; the total commitments for seven years, ending 1st of October, 1847, were 813, of whom 57 or 7 per cent. were women. The average convictions, for crimes against the person, were 10.58 per cent; not classed, 2.62; for larceny, 5.128; for other crimes, 32.52. The total number of inquests was 1021, viz., males, 823, females, 191. The number of accidents, on which inquests were held, was 132; lunatics, 20; apoplexy, 23; drowned, 329; burned, 29; intemperance, 81; suicide, 32; exposure, 15; exhaustion, 9; found dead, 37; visitation of God, 196; murder, 22; child-murder, 5; manslaughter, 5; poisoned, 1; suffocation, 12; strangulation, 2; shot by accident, 4; sudden death, 9; by lightning, 2. The trials before the magistrates, in quarter sessions, in 1847, for petty larcenies, assaults, and trespasses were—

Districts.	Quarter Sessions.			Under Trespass Act.	
	Tried.	Convicted	Acquitted	No.	Fines.
Eastern Canada	366	244	122	265	£396
Western Canada	375	195	180	2,526	2,316
Total	741	439	302	2,791	£2,712

An excellent penitentiary has been established for the whole province.

Mr. Sheriff Thomas, of the Gore district, who has paid considerable attention to crime in Canada, in a letter of the 9th of March, 1849, says, "I am warranted in laying it down as an incontrovertible fact that crime in this portion of the globe is almost entirely engendered by dissolute habits." Drunkenness appears in all young communities to be a prevailing crime, and there is no prospect of success in our colonies for any class of immigrants, unless they abstain from the abuse of intoxicating liquors.

MILITARY DEFENCE.—There is an effective militia in Eastern and Western Canada to the number of about 260,389 men.

By the militia Act, every able-bodied male inhabitant, from 18 to 60 years of age, after six months' residence, is liable to serve in the militia, unless specially exempted by law; the exceptions embrace the clergy, civil and military officers of his majesty's government, physicians, surgeons, school-masters, stewards of religious communities, students in colleges and seminaries, notaries, land-surveyors, ferrymen, millers, &c., and persons who had served as officers of militia previous to the act. The officers are appointed by the government; the qualification for those above the rank of captain being a *bona fide* possession of an estate yielding £50 currency per annum; half the sum qualifies for a captain's or subaltern's commission. There is an annual muster by companies (29th June) throughout Eastern Canada.

The militia abstract of Eastern Canada for 1847, shows, according to the returns, 36 regiments, consisting of 173 battalions, and 137,769 men.

In Western Canada there are 34 regiments of militia, comprising 166 battalions and 122,620 men; to this force is attached 1 company of cavalry, 11 of artillery, and 1 of rifles. The whole force of Eastern and Western Canada is 260,389 men.

The commissions issued since the reorganization of the force, have been:—

Officers.	Eastern Canada.	Western Canada.	Total.
Lieut.-Colonels . . .	175	157	334
Majors	237	122	359
Captains	1,431	1,002	2,433
Lieutenants	1,590	985	2,575
Ensigns	1,346	921	2,267
Staff	439	277	716

There is an adjutant-general and a deputy-general of militia.

The regular and provincial troops in Canada in 1847, were, royal artillery, officers 35, men 574; royal engineers, 31; 1 battalion H.M. 20th, officers 22, men 601; reserved battalion, officers 15, men 527; H.M. 23rd, officers 19, men 575; H.M. 71st, officers 17, men 561; H.M. 77th, officers 23, men 569; H.M. 93rd, officers 16, men 501; 2 battalions rifle brigade, officers 11, men 305; reserved battalion, officers 6, men 268; royal Canadian rifles, officers 60, men 1,669. There was also a part of the queen's light

dragoons, and the 1st and 2nd troop of the Montreal cavalry. The principal military stations are Quebec, Montreal, St. Helens, Kingston, Toronto, Niagara, London, Isle aux Noix, and Amherstburg.

The Canadian naval force, consisted in 1847, of 1 steamer of 75 tons, on Lake Ontario, and 3 gun-boats, hauled up: on Lake Erie 1 steam vessel 406 tons; and on Lake Superior 1 steam-vessel of 210 tons, all in commission.

Canada possesses ample means within itself for defence against foreign aggression: Quebec has been long deemed impregnable, and is well supplied with military stores; Montreal and Kingston are strongly protected; Toronto is secure against surprise; the forts along the frontier are in good order; the naval and military establishment on the bay of Pentanguishene might speedily be rendered effective; the communication between Eastern and Western Canada, by the Rideau canal, exempts traffic from border annoyances; and a dense population (men with brave hearts and strong arms) along the St. Lawrence river and the great Lakes, combine, with other circumstances, to secure Canada from the danger of invasion. The Canadians have no extensive sea-board to protect; no cities on the Atlantic open to assault or pillage; no slaves within their territory ready to burst their bonds and carry slaughter and desolation throughout the land. The conqueror of Canada must first capture Quebec, and possess a navy paramount on the ocean. It has been admitted that 100,000 troops would not be sufficient for the subjugation of Eastern and Western Canada. No European nation could, therefore, make the attempt; and if the Canadians are true to themselves, and desire to continue an integral portion of the British empire, they need not fear the hostility of the adjacent republic, with whom, however, it is undoubtedly both their duty and their interest to cultivate friendly relations, which it is to be hoped the good feeling of the citizens of the United States, as well as their knowledge of the evils war ever brings with it, especially to a commercial nation, will induce them cordially to reciprocate. By the mutual exercise of a little Christian forbearance both countries may be spared the harassing anxieties and protracted feuds arising from border hostilities and interne-cine strife, and continue to be distinguished by the rapid progress in civilization which peace only can maintain.

CHAPTER V.

INDUSTRIAL STATE OF EASTERN AND WESTERN CANADA, PRODUCTIONS, PROGRESS OF THE PROVINCE, INTERNAL AND MARITIME COMMERCE.

The industrial state, and progressive accumulation of property in the province, will be seen by an examination of the produce of each district. The returns for Eastern Canada for 1814 and 1848 are very imper-

fect, owing to the absence of any census in these years. In the year 1831 there was a complete return from each county; an abstract of which shows the following leading facts:—

Agricultural Produce, Cattle, Mills, &c., of each District in Eastern Canada in 1831.

Classification.	Quebec.	Montreal.	Three Rivers.	Gaspe.	Grand Total in 1831.
Area in square miles	127,919	54,802	15,823	7,389	205,963
Acres or arpents of land occupied	1,986,047	2,529,854	629,902	136,211	3,981,793
Acres or arpents of improved land	562,768	1,231,300	253,147	18,687	2,066,963
Produce raised during the year 1830:—					
Minots of wheat	911,887	2,098,982	383,511	10,342	3,404,756
Minots of peas	126,821	801,717	55,300	920	984,758
Minots of oats	798,133	1,911,861	426,770	5,520	3,142,274
Minots of barley	92,742	275,651	21,417	4,983	394,795
Minots of rye	36,744	171,962	25,411	318	234,465
Minots of Indian corn	481	313,341	25,554	256	339,633
Minots of potatoes	1,695,853	4,221,802	910,295	529,465	7,357,416
Minots of buck wheat	8,013	68,855	28,943	237	106,650
Neat cattle	104,796	229,746	48,725	5,411	388,678
Horses	26,213	76,057	13,739	677	116,686
Sheep	152,382	310,523	71,458	8,989	543,343
Hogs	74,515	174,447	39,776	6,409	295,137
Taverns or houses of public entertainment	311	610	78	6	1,035
Stores where spiritous liquors are sold	251	483	112	11	857
Grist mills	94	235	60	6	395
Saw mills	348	251	135	3	737
Oil mills	2	9	3	..	14
Fulling mills	35	47	15	..	97
Carding mills	29	46	15	..	90
Iron works	43	37	22	1	103
Trip hammers	2	14	2	..	18
Distilleries	4	56	10	..	70
Pot and pearl ash manufactories	5	462	22	..	489
Manufactories of any other sort containing any machinery	58	5	..	64

The Reporter of the "Board of Registration and Statistics" in Canada, remarks that the census returns of 1831 bear evidence of having been compiled with the greatest care and attention, but the great lapse between that period and 1844, when the next census was taken, renders it very difficult to arrive at any fixed conclusion as to increase.

The produce of Eastern Canada is thus stated comparatively for 1831 and 1844—

Produce.	Census, 1831.	Census, 1844.
	Bushels.	Bushels.
Wheat	3,404,756	942,835
Peas	948,758	1,219,420
Oats	3,142,274	7,238,753
Barley	394,795	1,195,456
Rye	234,529	333,446
Indian Corn	339,633	141,008
Potatoes	7,357,416	9,918,869
Buckwheat	106,650	374,809

This shows a great falling off in the production of wheat. The produce for 1844, without any deduction of seed, would only furnish 188,567 barrels, or only one barrel for every three inhabitants.

The whole produce, in 1844, exclusive of potatoes, was 11,115,727 bushels, and allowing that two-thirds of the cultivated lands were under potatoes and fallow, it would give an average crop of $12\frac{1}{2}$ bushels per acre of all grain for the remainder. In 1831, the same allowance being made, the average crop would be $12\frac{1}{2}$ bushels, while Mr. Bouchette for 1827 makes it $7\frac{2}{3}$ bushels, exclusive of 184,659 bushels of mixed grain. The neat cattle in 1844 were, in number, 469,851; horses 140,432; sheep 602,821; swine 197,935.

In 1844—Of the 76,440 proprietors of real estate, 15,188 held their lands in "free and common soccage," and the land so held

amounted to 1,706,993 acres, of which 540,256 were cultivated. Those held under Indian and other leases comprised 169 persons, occupying 25,598 acres, of which only 5,918 acres were under cultivation.

*Houses, Manufactories, &c., in Eastern Canada
in 1831 and 1844.*

—	1831.	1844.	In-crease.	De-crease.
Houses inhabited . .	82,437	108,794	26,357	—
" building . . .	1,458	1,352	194	—
" vacant . . .	1,542	4,115	2,573	—
No. of hives of bees .	no return	7,898	—	—
Lbs. of maple sugar .	—	2,272,457	—	—
No of taverns . . .	1,035	1,052	17	—
Stores where liquors are sold	857	808	—	49
Grist mills	395	422	27	—
Run of stones . . .	not given	844	—	—
Oatmeal mills . . .	—	108	—	—
Barley "	—	45	—	—
Saw "	—	911	—	—
Oil "	14	14	—	—
Fulling "	97	153	56	—
Carding "	90	169	79	—
Thrashing " . . .	not given	469	—	—
Paper "	—	8	—	—
Iron works	103	69	—	34
Trip hammers . . .	18	18	—	—
Nail factories . . .	not given	6	—	—
Distilleries	70	36	—	34
Breweries	not given	30	—	—
Tanneries	—	335	—	—
Pot and pearlash fac- tories	489	540	51	—
Other factories . . .	64	86	22	—

The census of 1831 gives, of land in culture, 2,065,913 acres; and the census of 1844, 2,802,317 acres.

Taking the two last census as being authentic, we find that the increase was 35·6 per cent., while the increase in population was exactly similar, being 35 per cent. The number of landed proprietors in 1831 was 57,891, being on the average about 36 acres to each; while in 1844 the proprietors amounted to 76,440, or about 36½ acres each; this shows that the state of agriculture in Eastern Canada must have been sadly neglected, and that it is only followed far enough to give an actual sustenance to the cultivators.

The fisheries of Eastern Canada are very valuable, but have not yet been turned to much account; the whole amount of fish and oil taken does not exceed in value £100,000 a-year. Gaspé Fishery and Coal Mining Company has been incorporated in London and in Canada; and in February, 1848, capital to the amount of £58,307 had been actually paid up on account of the company, and shares to the value of £17,474 had been accepted by the Vendors of Estates in Gaspé and County of Bonaventure, of the value of £40,698, as part payment, and representing

cash. The company has invested above £30,000 in improving their estates, in building a mill, shops, and stores, in clearing land, in the erection of an extensive "Beach," or fishing establishment, in constructing vessels and boats, &c.

Timber, lumber, and ashes constitute the principal exportable produce. In the neighbourhood of Quebec £1,200,000 has been expended in lumber and saw mills. The iron works are carried on to a great extent at St. Maurice in the district of Three Rivers. Whiskey is largely distilled at Montreal; there are several soap and candle manufactories, a manufactory for cloth, and about 20,000 domestic looms in Eastern Canada. The quantity of filled cloth produced in Eastern Canada is about 800,000 yards; of linen or cotton cloth, 1,000,000 yards; of flannel or woollen, 700,000 yards: the quantity of sheep wool annually produced, about 1,500,000 lbs. The *etoffe du pays* is a gray homespun cloth, made of mixed wool, and forms the substantial warm long coat usually worn by the *habitant* or Canadian farmer. Worsted stockings and socks, red caps, coloured sashes, mittens, lined with blanketing or hare skins, carpeting and mats, are made in every household. Excellent leather is prepared throughout the province; soap and candles are manufactured to some extent; the production of linseed oil is rapidly increasing; cordage and paper are of good quality; excellent ale and beer are brewed for domestic use, and for export to the West Indies. The cider, after being concentrated or frozen, separated from the icy or aqueous part, forms an excellent beverage.

In Western Canada the energy of the Anglo-Saxon race is markedly contrasted with the supineness of the French Canadians—who, although in possession of Eastern Canada for more than a century before Western Canada was colonized, are far behind their industrious brethren in the western division of the province—whose progress and prosperity will be best seen by an examination of the following official return:—

In less than a quarter of a century the population was augmented from 153,627 to 723,332, *i. e.* more than four-fold; the cultivated lands and houses five-fold; the uncultivated assessed land three-fold; horses and cows five-fold; oxen and other cattle four-fold; saw mills four-fold; the number of grist mills has been doubled; and the additional stones increased seven-fold.

TABULAR STATEMENT

Showing the Annual Amount and Value of all Articles Assessed for Local Taxation in Western Canada, under the several Assessment Laws of that Province, compiled from the Returns of the Clerks of the Peace, with its Population at various periods.

Years.	Population.	Lands.		Houses of all kinds, except Shanties.	Grist Mills.		Mer- chants' Shops.	Store- houses.	Horses.	Oxen.	Milk Cows.	Young Cattle.	Saw Mills.	Car- riages kept for pleasure.	Amount of Assessed Value of Property.	Gross Amount of all Local Taxes.
		Uncultivated Area, Acres.	Cultivated Area, Acres.		Num- ber.	Addi- tional four of stones.										
1825	158,927	2,500,304	535,212	8,876	232	71	456	51	22,580	23,900	51,216	23,501	391	587	2,256,871	10,255
1826	163,702	2,611,725	611,251	9,732	250	80	487	57	21,065	26,580	61,364	21,806	422	582	2,409,064	9,910
1827	176,659	2,826,070	632,607	9,889	262	91	496	51	25,520	29,128	67,319	27,918	460	750	2,442,847	11,509
1828	261,040	2,977,807	678,618	10,183	271	98	518	68	27,303	30,879	67,315	29,327	515	968	2,579,083	12,533
1829	196,701	3,008,777	717,552	11,291	296	102	601	72	28,388	33,451	75,091	31,841	535	982	2,735,783	12,732
1830	210,137	3,214,410	775,011	12,082	273	121	748	91	30,777	33,770	80,909	33,396	555	986	2,929,239	13,355
1831	231,781	3,570,389	818,132	13,005	291	135	757	95	33,197	36,057	83,519	35,191	533	1,111	3,143,181	15,320
1832	261,060	3,799,014	916,173	14,550	320	152	821	96	36,601	38,911	91,676	35,250	671	1,203	3,415,822	16,563
1833	296,870	4,115,253	981,955	16,146	307	173	1,025	105	40,249	41,870	95,012	36,089	723	1,121	3,796,040	18,397
1834	320,693	4,171,995	1,031,816	16,771	328	192	967	123	41,866	42,445	99,474	36,769	788	1,409	3,918,712	19,806
1835	336,469	4,176,398	1,208,508	18,488	352	199	982	117	47,721	46,066	109,605	39,329	753	1,195	3,880,991	22,464
1836	372,502	4,807,106	1,283,133	20,351	356	227	1,013	133	51,616	48,292	120,584	41,698	902	1,720	4,065,103	23,169
1837	396,721	4,736,256	1,453,556	22,657	366	233	1,198	117	57,170	49,317	123,028	48,598	860	1,627	4,431,098	24,337
1838	385,821	4,353,890	1,206,163	19,513	359	251	917	99	52,732	38,577	109,091	42,511	771	1,467	4,282,511	21,677
1839	407,515	5,113,423	1,587,676	25,019	420	298	1,036	113	66,220	47,569	136,551	47,624	953	1,769	5,345,372	33,210
1840	427,111	5,290,014	1,710,000	25,857	420	291	1,123	130	72,731	49,317	141,900	48,025	963	1,863	5,607,426	37,465
1841	465,357	5,310,103	1,740,661	27,960	443	334	1,211	145	76,717	50,271	163,663	51,955	980	1,936	6,269,398	43,908
1842	486,655	5,518,357	1,916,319	31,638	455	359	1,299	161	83,755	55,137	173,391	76,614	982	2,488	6,913,311	58,351
1843	No census.	5,783,197	1,993,659	33,190	451	375	1,330	151	88,062	58,531	181,186	81,326	1,169	2,618	7,157,321	61,849
1844	"	5,815,355	2,166,101	35,631	465	369	1,431	155	91,168	62,306	187,298	79,050	1,246	3,012	7,556,511	71,736
1845	"	6,072,076	2,311,258	37,214	478	417	1,636	174	98,568	65,127	199,537	78,665	1,272	3,810	7,758,917	79,291
1846	"	6,182,419	2,464,701	39,625	492	426	1,808	180	105,517	68,963	211,565	71,370	1,401	4,510	8,236,677	81,137
1847	"	6,477,338	2,673,820	42,937	527	475	1,915	179	113,812	72,017	218,653	76,365	1,489	4,985	8,667,001	86,068
1848	729,292	5,858,072	2,570,958	—	996	—	1,773	—	102,697	60,887	203,927	69,869	—	—	—	—

Note.—For the year 1838 the Assessment Rolls were very imperfectly taken, owing to the disturbed state of the country. The returns for 1848 are incomplete.

WEALTH OF EACH DISTRICT IN WESTERN CANADA.

133

The Assessment Returns of W. Canada for the year 1848 give the following results:—

Districts.	Land in Acres.		Water Power.		Cattle.				Merchants Shops and Store-houses at £200 each.	Valuation of Property assessed
	Uncultivated at 4s. per acre.	Cultivated at 20s. per acre.	Grist Mills at £50 to £150 each.	Saw Mills at £100 each.	Horses 3 yrs. old and upwards at £5.	Oxen at £4.	Milch Cows at £3.	Horned Cattle, 2 to 4 yrs. at £1.		
Eastern . . .	408,469	102,462	35	56	8,608	620	15,051	3,497	124	£136,550
Johnstown . .	390,908	145,862	62	71	7,163	2,715	15,260	5,161	80	459,789
Bathurst . . .	382,735	110,288	44	50	4,027	2,695	10,168	3,212	79	329,410
Midland . . .	336,212	155,826	38	71	7,069	2,495	12,870	4,500	58	462,583
Prince Edward	117,477	102,397	41	49	4,612	1,020	7,251	1,980	49	294,451
Home . . .	596,273	376,969	223	287	16,252	6,586	28,556	8,879	245	1,105,396
Simcoe . . .	280,513	75,227	22	40	2,650	2,820	6,540	2,688	52	93,477
Niagara . . .	248,381	174,086	92	83	8,989	2,318	14,326	3,678	224	519,536
Wellington . .	498,911	166,574	68	84	4,535	7,114	12,629	6,442	109	477,613
London . . .	507,598	177,758	61	102	7,124	6,080	16,186	7,719	104	582,891
Huron . . .	345,861	64,599	18	33	1,402	4,188	5,940	3,156	48	215,969
Ottawa . . .	112,798	28,343	20	27	1,834	319	3,484	744	28	111,418
Colborne . . .	252,683	79,563	29	26	2,536	3,324	6,383	2,014	63	332,246
Newcastle . .	357,584	206,164	85	129	6,881	4,867	13,255	3,830	102	547,241
Gore . . .	363,129	298,079	107	172	10,719	6,371	18,949	6,291	256	no return
Talbot . . .	198,341	90,033	30	87	3,876	2,302	6,889	2,463	52	288,646
Western . . .	460,199	115,708	21	28	6,420	5,053	12,388	5,615	100	227,556
Total . . .	5,858,072	2,570,938	996	1,385	102,697	60,887	203,927	69,869	1,773	6,484,772

Note.—The property valued and assessed, includes houses of wood valued at £20 to £40 each, and brick houses valued at £40 to £70 each, according to the additional fire-places in each. It also includes merchants' shops and storehouses valued at £200 each, and pleasure carriages or waggons, dogs, and distilleries, &c. The rating is at the rate of one penny in the pound for common district purposes; one penny in the pound for common schools; one-eighth of a penny in the pound for lunatic asylum. In some districts there are *special* assessments for the support of the poor—for the administration of justice—for a town-hall—a bridge—a public building—or other local purposes. The returns from each district are not alike in form: I have, therefore, only given in the above tabular statement such figures as illustrate generally the wealth and social state of each district in Western Canada.

The advantages of this fine country for settlers, may be estimated by the wealth which the above table exhibits. Take for example the following return of mills, foundries, factories, &c., in the Home District, and city of Toronto, showing the estimated value of machinery, &c., connected therewith.

Grist Mills in April, 1844, 75 . . . value	£125,000
Erected since—9 mills, 25 pair stones . .	23,000
189 Saw Mills	47,250
12 Oatmeal Mills	3,300
4 Iron Foundries, propelled by steam—city	14,000
5 Small ones, not steam	2,000
10 Woollen Factories, not steam	12,150
43 Carding Machines	23,700
1 Edged-tool Factory—city	1,500
3 Starch Factories—1 in city	1,550
23 Distilleries—3 in city	8,825
21 Breweries—5 in city	12,450
1 Pail Factory—city	1,000
4 Soap and Candle Factories—city . . .	3,700
1 Cabinet and Chair Factory, by steam .	1,000
3 Cabinet and Piano Manufactories—city	1,200
1 Paper Mill—5 miles from city	1,500
31 Tanneries—2 in city	8,050
1 Snuff manufactory—city	250
1 Soda Establishment	380

£291,805

A man with health and strength, industry and honesty, may soon become independent in Canada, and realise the boast, that it is decidedly the "poor man's land."

It has been alleged that Canada has been standing still while the United States was all activity, bustle, and progress; but such is not the case: it has been well observed, that "within the last 25 years, the Rideau, Welland, and St. Lawrence Canals, some of the most magnificent and important undertakings in the world, have been commenced and completed." In the year 1799, the whole of the Home District contained only 224 inhabitants; in 1848, it had a population of 106,995. Twenty years ago, London, Hamilton, Bytown, and Cobourg, scarcely had an existence; now they are flourishing towns, with handsome houses, and spacious public buildings, and their outskirts studded with elegant villas.

The facts contained in this volume amply attest the good government of Canada, and the benefits which the province has derived from British connexion.

Lands, Products, &c.		Barthurst.	Brook.	Colborne.	Dalhousie.	Eastern.	Gore.	Home.	Huron.	Johnstown.	London.	Midland.	Newcastle.	Niagara.	Oranienburg.	Prime Ed.	Simcoe.	Talbot.	Victoria.	Wellington.	Western.
Lands.—	Conferred Acres	1290800	584320	647040	448000	755200	417600	1361000	1104000	1021000	699040	198720	1314610	703600	529000	290000	4408800	384000	420000	107600	141700
	Cultivated	110988	no return	76588	—	102462	310515	376963	64509	145862	177758	155896	206164	174086	28343	102297	25297	90038	—	10374	11708
Price per Acre:—	Cleared	382735	return	252683	—	408463	57014	592273	345801	399098	507308	336212	557381	218681	112798	117177	350169	248839	27776	35210	168782
	Wild	487431	804063	329497	267404	81181	168806	929224	367575	513578	642459	434473	519769	381100	180868	272106	54711	76708	62824	96389	42802
Produce:—	Barley	53314	87766	46331	261471	81181	168806	929224	367575	513578	642459	434473	519769	381100	180868	272106	54711	76708	62824	96389	42802
	Oats	53314	87766	46331	261471	81181	168806	929224	367575	513578	642459	434473	519769	381100	180868	272106	54711	76708	62824	96389	42802
Produce for Market:—	Wheat	380366	252108	196846	213940	404458	382912	405089	291511	364368	440920	280002	319556	304044	111876	411434	240883	167722	187403	400863	365494
	Unprofitable	121922	13146	4291	38644	51680	55554	288800	11511	91261	16467	47521	17734	9822	15658	50413	11704	11753	16994	25672	16742
Produce:—	Wheat	184343	294047	276044	121012	155064	987136	1451384	305725	251530	538438	197175	504673	103108	295566	200701	223071	200082	205175	549550	204988
	Barley	10419	25680	6609	4131	19000	84067	106819	13145	10665	118603	215300	45375	72297	22994	18678	6883	10250	3978	20871	11512
Produce:—	Rye	2627	11196	1203	381	29003	32286	23482	1673	11671	11863	119276	32942	8639	631	90518	2182	15067	16707	20871	11512
	Oats	312806	372263	242640	208708	412280	506266	1526935	174736	284808	379213	338616	515155	441383	72828	119087	212006	147653	228726	36587	10404
Produce:—	Maize	31580	52924	47348	27961	61724	100376	384721	36540	47519	164537	184023	98763	117632	8311	135896	37380	35650	51704	39062	51180
	Maize	22393	47439	3486	10211	60124	113384	33480	7113	7686	88447	64957	121992	138153	21865	91725	5627	93266	46239	2399	8398
Produce:—	Maize	12605	14487	609	3651	33720	51498	16336	451	22388	36338	29573	33572	57878	1092	47502	759	49687	15233	1252	9914
	Potatoes	531215	127165	191827	373433	266000	120972	423604	125132	403109	147903	347392	339357	87171	95590	184220	200876	82773	194333	251485	16749
Produce:—	Flax, lbs.	—	1544	249	15	6510	4121	5662	2876	681	2142	1094	1049	8607	182	738	871	1156	612	3451	no returns
	Flax, lbs.	—	8	192	20	138	13	122	14	12	277	46	25	3008	334	86	—	230	70	38	no returns
Produce:—	Flax, lbs.	158933	139063	83609	32616	173317	136773	364663	101223	196555	529007	190903	234493	11774	29240	114789	115000	18865	121830	282748	183883
	Flax, lbs.	106729	126701	67101	47654	129208	205576	314992	43700	160110	232727	134191	154085	14774	22926	99284	63571	88224	77683	80294	41157
Produce:—	Flax, lbs.	22529	30142	17879	11111	29988	16294	66262	21063	31153	63227	29144	37541	119658	6485	11880	17896	15714	18878	32400	26491
	Flax, lbs.	4442	6577	3781	1796	11146	11610	21700	2004	9008	12319	8275	10752	11472	2175	11967	3327	1511	4790	5242	8095
Produce:—	Flax, lbs.	36416	49997	24228	16196	48457	68160	165633	17341	52416	96550	44281	529096	48182	9157	31404	29530	29633	29889	32013	19146
	Flax, lbs.	13575	25528	16471	8870	20917	41291	70802	19424	18060	47501	17979	33390	296675	3601	8284	21647	15912	14264	25300	31472
Produce:—	Flax, lbs.	36755	29417	22402	16353	47571	13676	67714	9972	54963	59532	34586	41256	51408	9834	19303	15742	19772	24342	17367	11903
	Flax, lbs.	19256	986	129	613	8604	621	4025	1451	10379	2198	3450	3650	5621	111	780	2400	1226	3487	13633	9260
Produce:—	Flax, lbs.	71721	86528	39274	33240	52591	182827	128094	33451	82784	136286	56179	84873	66653	13689	50636	37643	49180	39180	36572	37141
	Flax, lbs.	306739	107474	98372	97817	158090	171610	428297	63944	407434	551807	195318	155842	206702	41717	93059	80406	78166	70907	109855	no return
Produce:—	Flax, lbs.	9673	115138	11384	9836	37572	25582	116092	6549	43609	55556	35449	77164	39233	10131	21361	7931	11957	13949	20781	no return
	Flax, lbs.	7410	5528	3068	1885	2667	4589	11664	2184	3828	17635	3914	7669	3387	2257	2821	6039	1596	2515	1661	made.
Public Buildings:—	Town Halls	5	1	3	2	1	3	16	2	4	3	3	6	2	6	1	1	2	1	4	2
	Churches	32	33	28	23	42	64	172	15	54	56	44	70	90	13	26	34	30	16	31	22
Public Buildings:—	Colleges and High Schools	8	—	2	1	—	1	12	—	1	4	7	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
	Schools	103	112	82	101	150	165	999	44	188	139	167	169	187	41	100	73	96	61	80	107
Public Buildings:—	Inns	18	52	49	93	72	257	368	62	189	113	198	104	136	18	20	55	53	63	107	100
	Merchants' Shops	64	56	47	73	105	186	508	39	85	83	113	139	113	22	34	36	47	45	73	42

The average yield of the several crops in the Eastern District, for example, of Western Canada, for the last ten years has been:—wheat, about 25 bushels per acre; corn, 40; oats, 40; barley, 30; peas, 35 bushels per acre.

It will be perceived that agricultural produce is the staple of the colony: various manufactories are now however arising; and the engines of many steam vessels on the lakes, have been made in Canada. About 60 large class steamers have been built and fitted out for the navigation of the lakes, and no accident by explosion has occurred. Woollens, lincens, and flannels for domestic use, are made in every district; whiskey distilleries, breweries, foundries, tanneries, pot, pearl-ash, soap, and candle manufactories, are very numerous. The quantity of maple sugar made in Western Canada, in 1848, was 4,140,667 lbs., or nearly 6 lbs. for each individual. Apples, pears, plums, peaches, cherries, raspberries, currants, strawberries, gooseberries, and damsons, flourish when cultivated. On the shores of Lake Erie peaches have been sold at a quarter of a dollar per bushel, and apples are sold on the banks of the river Thames at three-pence-halfpenny per bushel. All culinary vegetables arrive at perfection. Pumpkins and squashes grow in the open fields to an enormous size; 50 to 80 pounds weight is not unusual. The fisheries of the great lakes are now being appreciated; iron and copper ore abound, and are of good quality.

But the main sources of wealth consist of millions of acres of fertile soil, a genial climate, industrious people, and a market such as England, ready to receive at all times an incalculable quantity of human food, and to furnish in return, abundance of manufactures at the cheapest rate.

The number of proprietors of real estates liable to assessment in Western Canada, in 1848, was 60,000 to 65,000; and the number of acres occupied, 8,613,591 = 133 acres to each proprietor; allowing 1,780,152 acres of land to be arable, and 766,768 pasture = 2,546,920; and considering that the great body of the people are supported by agriculture, there are more than 3 acres to each mouth.

The number of acres returned under tillage was 1,780,152; and under designated crops, as follows:—wheat, 593,695; barley, 29,324; rye, 38,542; oats, 285,571; peas, 82,516; maize, 51,997; buck-wheat, 26,653;

potatoes, 56,796 acres = 1,165,004; add for omissions 10 per cent., 116,500. Grand total under designated crops, 1,281,504 acres; which leaves 498,638 unaccounted for, probably appropriated in gardens, town-plots, &c.

The unproductive lands in Western Canada comprise 571,139 acres, or about 6.63 per cent.; but a large portion returned as unfit for cultivation, are swamp lands, which only require drainage.

In England the unprofitable lands are estimated at 10 per cent. of the whole area. The value of the *uncultivated* lands, viz.: 5,849,406 acres, at £1 9s. 2d. per acre, is £8,530,383; of the cultivated, viz.: 2,546,920 acres, at £3 10s. 10d. per acre = £9,20,341; total, £17,550,725. Western Canada, as a British colony, offers a favourable contrast to the United States as regards agricultural produce. The Statistical Reporter for the province makes the following remarks thereon:—"In 1840 the population of the United States was 17,063,353; and in 1847, 20,746,400. In 1842 the population of Western Canada was 486,055; and in 1848, 723,332."

United States.

Crops.	Gross quantity in 1840.	Gross quantity in 1847	Quantity to each inhabitant.	
			1840.	1847.
Wheat—bushels	84,823,272	11,215,500	4.96	5.50
Barley "	4,161,504	5,649,950	.25	.28
Oats "	123,071,341	167,867,000	7.21	8.00
Rye "	18,645,567	29,222,700	1.09	1.42
Buckwheat "	7,291,703	11,673,508	0.43	.56
Maize "	377,531,875	539,350,000	22.12	26.01
Potatoes "	108,295,108	100,965,000	6.35	4.86
Peas "	Not given	in either re	turns.	

Canada.

Crops.	Gross quantity in 1842.	Gross quantity in 1847.	Quantity to each inhabitant.	
			1842	1847.
Wheat—bushels	3,221,991	7,558,773	6.62	10.15
Barley "	1,031,335	515,727	2.12	0.71
Oats "	4,788,167	7,055,730	9.85	9.75
Rye "	292,970	446,293	0.60	0.62
Buckwheat "	352,786	432,573	0.72	0.60
Maize "	691,359	1,137,555	1.42	1.57
Potatoes "	8,080,397	4,751,331	16.62	6.57
Peas "	1,193,551	1,753,846	2.45	2.42

From the above table it will be seen that in proportion to the extent and population, Canada is a more agricultural and fertile country than the United States; the surplus of wheat is very great. The usual quantity allowed for the consumption of each inhabi-

tant is generally 5 bushels, which would leave for export one-half the produce of the country. The large quantity of Indian corn grown in the States, enables them, by making it a staple of consumption, to export a large stock of flour. In Canada, on the contrary, little Indian corn is grown, and wheat becomes of necessity the great article of food.

If we take the produce for 1817 at the lowest average prices, we have as the value of the products of Canada:—

Products.	Bushels.	Average prices.	Value.	
		<i>s. d.</i>	£	<i>s. d.</i>
Wheat . . .	7,558,773	3 6	1,322,785	5 6
Barley . . .	515,727	2 3	58,019	5 9
Oats . . .	7,055,730	1 3	440,983	2 6
Rye . . .	416,293	2 3	50,208	1 9
Maize . . .	1,137,555	2 6	112,194	7 6
Buckwheat . .	432,573	4 0	86,514	12 0
Pears . . .	1,753,816	2 6	219,230	15 0
Potatoes . .	4,751,331	1 6	356,329	16 6

"In making the foregoing comparison between the crops of the United States and Canada, a remark has been made which requires some observation. It is stated to be unjust to take the whole of the former country, whereas some portions do not produce wheat, Louisiana and Florida for instance, whose united population is about 600,000; we will take therefore those states which produce the greatest quantity, viz:—

United States.	Population.	Wheat.	Average to each inhabitant.
		Bushels.	Bushels.
New York . .	2,880,000	15,500,000	about 5
Pennsylvania .	2,220,000	15,200,000	" 7
Virginia . . .	1,295,000	12,250,000	" 10
Ohio . . .	1,980,000	20,000,000	" 10
Indiana . . .	1,000,000	8,500,000	" 8

"With respect to Michigan, it is worth while to examine the returns; in 1810 the population of that State, was 212,267, and its produce in wheat was 2,157,108 bushels. In 1818 the population is rated at 420,000, and the wheat crop at 10,000,000 bushels, and other crops at 22,110,000, making together 32,000,000 bushels. How does that stand with regard to the available labour of the State? According to the ratio of 1841, the whole male population between the ages of 15 and 70 would be about 127,000, of whom, allowing 75 per cent. to be engaged in agriculture we have 92,000 to collect this

enormous harvest of grain, above 350 bushels to each man. The wheat crop being about 21 bushels to each inhabitant."

Cattle increase with great rapidity in Canada, especially in the western part of the province, where the winters are not severe.

Cattle in Western Canada.

Description.	1812.	1848.	Increase.	Per Cent.
Neat Cattle .	501,963	565,845	60,882	12
Horses . . .	113,675	151,389	37,714	33
Hogs . . .	391,366	481,211	89,845	23
Sheep . . .	575,730	833,807	258,077	45

Western Canada will become a great sheep country. In 1812 the wool produced was 1,302,510 lbs.; in 1848, 2,339,756 lbs. In the United States the number of sheep in 1840 was 19,311,374 and the wool produced 35,802,114 lbs.

The quantity of lands surveyed and granted in Eastern and Western Canada, will be seen in the following tables; the subject of emigration, in connexion with the waste and unoccupied lands, will be given at the conclusion of the description of the whole of British America, to which the data furnished by official authorities apply generally.

The remarks made in 1846 by the instructive editor of the *Canadian Gazetteer* (Mr. W. H. Smith) respecting the price of land in Western Canada, deserve the notice of emigrants. "All lands in the possession of the crown, with very few exceptions, are sold at 8s. currency per acre, which may be paid for either in cash or scrip. This scrip is usually to be purchased at a discount of 20, 25, and sometimes 30 per cent. If the immigrant gets it at a reduction of 25 per cent., his land will only cost him 6s. currency per acre, which is *three pence* per acre less than the government price of land in the United States. There are about 2,300,000 acres of the crown lands in Western Canada surveyed and ready to be disposed of at this price, exclusive of the clergy reserves." Land may be purchased of private individuals in the different districts of Western Canada at the following rates:—In Victoria district, near the frontier, 4 to 10 dollars per acre for wild (uncultivated) land, and for cultivated farms, including buildings, 20 to 35 dollars per acre. In the back townships, wild land 1 to 4; cultivated, 8 to 20 dollars per acre. Other districts similar.

LANDS GRANTED AND SOLD IN EASTERN CANADA,
In the Years from 1836 to 1847 inclusive, taken from Returns furnished to the "Blue Book," by the Crown Land Commissioner.

DESCRIPTION OF GRANT.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
Grants under 100 acres . . .	{ No. 30 Acres 1,898 }	{ No. 379 Acres 36,519 }	{ No. 104 Acres 9,235 }	{ No. 389 Acres 35,519 }	{ No. 158 Acres 15,912 }	{ No. 69 Acres 6,112 }	{ No. 52 Acres 4,339 }	{ No. 24 Acres 2,297 }	{ No. 88 Acres 6,024 }	{ No. 138 Acres 11,192 }	{ No. 152 Acres 11,418 }	{ No. 182 Acres 13,770 }
Grants to 500 acres . . .	{ No. 927 Acres 31,492 }	{ No. 99 Acres 29,074 }	{ No. 42 Acres 8,681 }	{ No. 96 Acres 29,690 }	{ No. 65 Acres 10,865 }	{ No. 47 Acres 11,692 }	{ No. 15 Acres 10,182 }	{ No. 31 Acres 6,160 }	{ No. 33 Acres 7,368 }	{ No. 94 Acres 16,757 }	{ No. 84 Acres 15,415 }	{ No. 83 Acres 15,559 }
In grants over 500 acres . . .	{ No. 294 Acres 60,551 }	{ No. 525 Acres 37,518 }	{ No. 158 Acres 19,411 }	{ No. 620 Acres 75,382 }	{ No. 237 Acres 20,473 }	{ No. 189 Acres 25,337 }	{ No. 113 Acres 33,087 }	{ No. 69 Acres 23,116 }	{ No. 128 Acres 27,804 }	{ No. 252 Acres 123,588 }	{ No. 260 Acres 149,882 }	{ No. 280 Acres 13,197 }
Total number of grants . . .	91,484	91,108	37,358	131,093	52,850	43,351	47,808	31,573	41,526	151,573	167,185	42,317
Of which were by purchase . . .	53,275	25,959	30,917	91,442	19,581	31,928	41,703	28,283	19,291	100,912	36,885	36,948
And which were by free grants . . .	39,209	65,149	6,441	37,251	33,269	8,423	3,105	3,290	22,235	50,661	130,300	5,369
Number of acres granted in colony . . .	3,129,547	3,453,418	3,628,269	3,681,219	3,724,570	3,724,570	3,772,378	3,803,051	3,815,477	3,997,014	4,164,490	4,296,816
" " Ungaranteed . . .	1,071,862	4,051,143	3,393,785	3,862,091	3,509,211	3,913,901	3,896,093	3,864,520	3,604,300	2,927,763	2,802,557 ^a	2,799,910

^a There were also two grants in Murray Bay, and one in Bay Chaleur—extent not known.

^b Include 121,831 acres granted to the British American Land Company.

^c This line fluctuates by new surveys.

^d Also 676 Town, and 76 Park Lots.

Since the 1st January 1841, there were granted in Eastern Canada :—

By purchase	527,844 ¹ Acres.
By free grant	408,206 ¹ "
	936,051 "

LANDS GRANTED AND SOLD IN WESTERN CANADA,

In the Years from 1836 to 1847 inclusive, taken from the Returns furnished to the "Blue Book," by the Crown Land Commissioner.

DESCRIPTION OF GRANT.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
Grants under 1,110 acres . . .	{ No. 1,662 Acres 134,603 }	{ No. 1,211 Acres 103,485 }	{ No. 606 Acres 52,119 }	{ No. 911 Acres 71,774 }	{ No. 1,182 Acres 92,113 }	{ No. 352 Acres 31,057 }	{ No. 419 Acres 29,001 }	{ No. 856 Acres 38,473 }	{ No. 866 Acres 34,856 }	{ No. 173 Acres 9,209 }	{ No. 1,070 Acres 69,433 }	{ No. 1,400 Acres 110,067 }
Grants from 1 to 500 Acres . . .	{ No. 1,351 Acres 382,858 }	{ No. 659 Acres 117,006 }	{ No. 383 Acres 81,025 }	{ No. 436 Acres 87,324 }	{ No. 526 Acres 103,440 }	{ No. 224 Acres 31,536 }	{ No. 181 Acres 30,552 }	{ No. 465 Acres 31,069 }	{ No. 147 Acres 29,878 }	{ No. 872 Acres 118,876 }	{ No. 212 Acres 42,100 }	{ No. 194 Acres 39,914 }
In grants over 500 acres . . .	{ No. 47,381 Acres 34,782 }	{ No. 28,092 Acres 19,115 }	{ No. 12,116 Acres 21,515 }	{ No. 14,219 Acres 11,219 }	{ No. 10,412 Acres 10,412 }	{ No. 29,112 Acres 12,390 }	{ No. 10,121 Acres 12,390 }	{ No. 12,390 Acres 12,390 }	{ No. 1,016 Acres 1,016 }	{ No. 30,261 Acres 30,261 }	{ No. 76,035 Acres 76,035 }	{ No. 12,360 Acres 12,360 }
Total number of grants . . .	91,484	91,108	37,358	131,093	52,850	43,351	47,808	31,573	41,526	151,573	167,185	42,317
Of which were by purchase . . .	53,275	25,959	30,917	91,442	19,581	31,928	41,703	28,283	19,291	100,912	36,885	36,948
And which were by free grants . . .	39,209	65,149	6,441	37,251	33,269	8,423	3,105	3,290	22,235	50,661	130,300	5,369
Number of acres granted in colony . . .	3,129,547	3,453,418	3,628,269	3,681,219	3,724,570	3,724,570	3,772,378	3,803,051	3,815,477	3,997,014	4,164,490	4,296,816
" " Ungaranteed . . .	1,071,862	4,051,143	3,393,785	3,862,091	3,509,211	3,913,901	3,896,093	3,864,520	3,604,300	2,927,763	2,802,557 ^a	2,799,910

The quantity of land originally surveyed in Western Canada, including that surrendered by the Indian tribes, was about 18,153,219 acres, which have been appropriated as follows: To the United Emigrant Loyalists, and for various claims, 10,101,663 acres. Of this amount the United Emigrant Loyalists who quitted the United States during the war against England received about 3,206,987 acres; the Canadian Militia about 730,709 acres; Discharged Soldiers and Seamen, 419,100 acres; Magistrates and Barristers, 255,500 acres; Legislative Councillors and their families, 412,960 acres. The Clergy Reserves, consisting of one-seventh of the surveyed cultivable lands, set apart by George III. for the support of the Christian religion, amounted to 2,107,687

acres. There has been allotted for educational purposes to King's College, Toronto, 225,914 acres; to Upper Canada College, 63,612 acres; to Grammar Schools, 258,330 acres. The Canada Company have purchased 2,181,113 acres. The Indian Reservations not disposed of amount to 808,540 acres; the lands remaining on hand, 1,500,000 acres; and the unsurveyed lands are about 13,500,000 acres; of which it is estimated 9,000,000 acres are fit for cultivation. About half the surveyed lands of Western Canada have been purchased from the Indians since 1818, and Mr. W. H. Smith, in his valuable *Canadian Gazetteer*, gives the following statement of the quantity of land bought, and the price paid by the British Government:—

Date of Surrender.	Name of Tribe.	No. of Tribe.	No. of acres sold.	Amount of Annuity in Currency.	Conditions.
20th July, 1820	Mohawks of Quinte Bay .	415	33,280	£450 0	{ £2 10s. to each member of the tribe; but not to exceed £450. Ditto, but not to exceed £642 10s.
31st May, 1819	Mississagas of Alnwick .	218	2,748,000	642 10	
28th Oct., 1818	Ditto of Credit River .	245	648,000	522 10	
5th Nov., 1818	{ Ditto of Rice and Mud Lakes }	345	1,951,000	740 0	—
17th Oct., 1818	Chippewas of Lake Huron	540	1,592,000	1,200 0	
26th April, 1825	{ Ditto of Chenail, Ecarte, and St. Clair . }	1,129	2,200,000	1,100 0	{ If the tribe decreases one-half, the annuity is to decrease in the same proportion; the original number specified in the deed is 440 souls. £2 10s. to each member of the tribe; but not to exceed £600 yearly.
9th May, 1820	Ditto of River Thames .	438	580,000	600 0	
25th Oct., 1826	Moravians of ditto .	184	25,000	150 0	{ £2 10s. to each member of the tribe; not to increase, but to decrease with its diminution.
9th Aug., 1836	Saugeen Indians .	348	150,000	1,250 0	
	Totals, .	3,862	9,927,280	6,655 0	

These purchases give the government and people of England the right of those lands in Canada, and in the event of separation or annexation to the United States, the people of England would require indemnification for their property.

£15,000 a-year is still annually voted by the British Parliament for the payment of the several sums due to the Indians, who are located in different parts of the province, and in some instances converted to Christianity; their numbers are, however, fast diminishing, and at no distant time they will probably be extinct. About 1,110 Chippewas reside on Walpole Island in Lake St. Clair. Members of the Chippewas, Munsees, Oneidas, Pottawatamies, and Moravian Delawares, are located on the banks of the river Thames, in the townships of Orford, Delaware, and Caradoc. Another Chippewa tribe are established at Sarnia, at the head of Lake St. Clair; Sir J. Colborne endeavoured to civilize this

tribe, and they have made some improvements in agriculture. The Saugeens are resident in two villages situated at the mouth of the Saugeen and at Owen Sound. The principal Indian settlement is at Manitoulin Island, where the British officers and clergymen who are appointed superintendents by her majesty's government reside. The Indians here are becoming more settled, and are being baptized.

Of the "Clergy Reserves" in Western Canada there were sold, from 1829 to 1838, 100,712 acres; and during the same period, of the Crown Lands in Western Canada only 100,317 acres were sold. In Eastern Canada there has been no sale of Clergy Reserves since 1838. Either the land thus appropriated for the support of the different ministers of the Christian religion have been mismanaged, or the price asked for those lands have been too high.

The "Canada Company," which was incorporated by royal charter, 19th August

1826, with a capital of £1,000,000, has purchased of reserved and other lands in Western Canada 2,484,413 acres: of these, 1,300,000 acres are held in dispersed blocks, in sizes of 200 to 2,000, 10,000, 12,000, and 14,000 acres, and the remainder is comprised in the Huron tract, which was granted in lieu of one moiety of the clergy reserves scattered throughout the province. This company has effected great good, its settlements are among the most flourishing in the province, and the people therein strongly attached to the British crown. All the obligations of the company have been faithfully fulfilled; they stipulated to pay for their lands as follows:—On 1st July, 1827, £20,000; three following years, each, £15,000; in 1831, £16,000; in 1832, £17,000; in 1833, £18,000; in 1834, £19,000; in 1835, £20,000; and thereafter the sum of £20,000 annually, until 16 years shall have expired from 1st July, 1826, at which time their payments reached £295,000. From this sum the Company was authorised to deduct £45,000 for the construction of works of public utility within the Huron tract; and to this fund the Company have made large additions. Its affairs are managed by a board of directors, resident in London, and affords an illustration of the beneficial working of corporate bodies in the distant possessions of the crown.

STAPLE PRODUCTS.—Timber now forms the largest item in the exportable products of Canada; the quantity in, and adjacent to the colony is so great that it must, in all human probability, continue to yield wealth to the province for many years. In the "lumber" trade, as it is termed, a large amount of capital is employed; about one million and a half sterling is invested in the neighbourhood of Quebec in erecting saw mills, making log ponds, building craft for the transmission of deals, and forming a secure riding for vessels in the strong tide-way of the St. Lawrence, while the timber is being shipped. In different ways this business offers immediate employment to the poorest class of immigrants, and furnishes them with the means of support through the severity of a long winter, while it enables new settlers more readily to establish themselves. Until the land be cleared, its cultivation is, of course, impossible; the "lumberer" is therefore the pioneer of the agriculturist, and the trees which were an incumbrance, are, by his assistance, converted into money, and the

settler enabled to add to his means of tilling the soil.

The quantity of timber annually supplied by the Canadian forests is enormous; for instance, in 1816 there arrived at Quebec, from the interior—of white pine, 24,705,287 feet; red pine, 5,270,600; pine deals, 1,316,101 pieces; spruce deals, 916,933 pieces; oak, 2,756,754 feet; elm, 3,172,303 feet; ash, 250,132 feet; birch, 211,683 feet; Tamarac, 593,584 feet. The Western and Eastern pine, oak, elm, ash, and birch, are all square timber. In the section on New Brunswick the forest trees of British North America will be described.

The forests on the Ottawa contribute an annually increasing supply. During the three years ending 1840 there passed down the Ottawa—of white pine, 49,783 feet; red pine, 253,163; oak and elm, 7,831; deals, 46,250; and saw logs, 48,272 pieces. The country around the Saguenay also contributes an immense quantity.

In order to facilitate the transit of timber on the Ottawa, and avert the danger attendant on passing the rapids, government have constructed "slides" over several of the principal falls; those over the Chaudière have been recently visited by Mr. Barker, who says—

"They are four in number, three about 100 feet long each, and one 200 feet long; all 26 feet wide (which is the general width of all crib slides), over-covering a fall averaging generally 35 feet. In the first, or upper slide, an ingenious arrangement to regulate the pitch of water on the slides has been introduced, consisting of two large gates (as strong as oak and iron can make them) similar to lock gates, only laid flat, the upper one overlapping the under one, and forming a part of the slide. Now, the water being let in under these gates by the level above, lifts them up by hydraulic pressure; and by means of another wicket to let the water out below, the level is regulated to any required pitch, or shut off altogether by simply turning a wrench, thus showing how easily a tremendous power can be controlled—a volume of water equal to 150 feet area can be let down the slides, or shut off instantly. These slides have been in use three years, and cost upwards of £5,000. The Chute slide is the best on the river; it is 350 feet long, which, with the head gates, over-cover a fall of nearly 40 feet. This slide is built in the form of a reversed curve instead of an inclined plane; the advantages of this shape are, that the timber is prevented running out of the cribs when the timber is of unequal size. To illustrate this more fully—when cribs are passing down a slide, the largest pieces drag upon the bottom or floor of the slide, and the water floats out the smaller pieces, leaving the crib a wreck, which has generally to be pulled to pieces, and caught below and rafted over again, causing much delay and danger to the men. This slide in '16 and '17, passed about 22,000 cribs, at 5s. each, thus more than paying the first cost in two years, which was less than £5,000."

The "lumber" trade on the *Ottawa* and its branches, it is estimated, gives employment to about 10,000 men, who are fast settling that section of the country. The *Trent*, and its tributaries, with the Bay of Quinte, employ also about 10,000 men. No very accurate estimate can be made as to the numbers employed westward. In the population returns the "lumberers" are not

usually given; but the able compiler of the Canadian "Blue Books," thinks that the number engaged in this branch of industry is from 25,000 to 30,000, with a large number of cattle.

The different sections of the province where the "lumber" trade is carried on is thus shown in the official returns for 1846:—

	White Pine.		Red Pine.		Oak.		Eln.	
	Pieces.	Feet.	Pieces.	Feet.	Pieces.	Feet.	Pieces.	Feet.
Quebec and Montreal . . .	22,624	1,163,081	4,261	68,592	65	1,904	691	24,149
St. Lawrence from Montreal to head of Lake Ontario . . .	108,541	7,567,662	8,391	249,579	10,061	320,130	54,688	2,009,848
3. Grand River and Lake Erie . . .	4,508	279,763	5	178	32,212	1,995,358	1,911	77,494
4. Ottawa and tributaries below Bytown . . .	92,827	4,988,337	3,964	120,794	4,163	77,751	21,952	750,823
5. Gatineau . . .	23,284	1,477,357	3,959	133,155	38	1,354	1,489	42,442
6. Rideau . . .	26,527	1,653,851	1,778	67,460	817	21,895	8,016	261,728
7. Ottawa and tributaries below Bytown . . .	125,780	7,532,764	118,131	4,543,545	5,184	126,272	4,487	133,801
8. United States . . .	599	35,453	1,213	53,936	562	15,078	3,910	168,718
Total in 1846 . . .	401,690	24,698,268	141,705	5,237,243	53,102	2,539,751	97,204	3,472,303
Do. in 1845 . . .	401,246	19,141,982	115,432	4,144,515	38,841	1,831,185	42,847	1,567,108

Fisheries.—None organized. Many hundred barrels of white fish are annually taken, and salmon, trout, shad, pike, pickerel, herring, black and white bass, maskinonge, sturgeon, mullet, chub, and perch, are caught in great numbers. The value cannot be ascertained.

The exports of fish from Quebec, and the coasts of Gaspé, New Carlisle, and the Magdalen Islands, was for 1846, — cod, 91,124 cwt., and 274 barrels (value £56,614); haddock, 396 tubs and 60 cwt; pickled fish, 926 barrels and 14 half barrels; salmon, 77 barrels and 154 half barrels; cod-sounds, 2 barrels and 75 kegs; fish-oil, 35,781 gallons (value £3,152); blubber, 482 gallons; seal-skins, 9,000. The value of *all* the above was £62,104.

Shipping.—Built and registered at Quebec, 45 ships and brigs, tonnage 33,725; and 9 schooners, tonnage 610; and at Montreal 9 vessels, tonnage 1,032. From 30 to 45 steamers, ranging from 80 to 500 tons, have been registered at the above ports. The greater number are employed as passage boats, or for towing. There are many small steamers, from 30 to 90 tons, not registered, running from Montreal to Kingston and the intervening ports; they descend by the St. Lawrence, and return by the Rideau canal.

The registered tonnage on the Lake trade, exclusive of steam-boats and iron boats, barges, &c., engaged in the forwarding trade between Kingston and Montreal, is estimated for the year 1846 at 17 or 18,000 tons. A great portion of the trade on the lower lakes (the import trade altogether), and nearly the whole on the upper lakes, is carried on in American bottoms. The steamers, propellers, and other vessels owned on Lake Ontario, and employed on the inland waters of Canada, were, in 1846, 57 steamers (2 of iron), value £350,000; 6 large propellers, value £11,000; 2 ships, 5 brigantines, and 94 schooners of 30 tons, and upwards, value £150,000; barges 300, value £80,000; 7 river-propellers, value £7,000; small craft under 30 tons, value £17,000.

Ashes—(pot and pearl)—are prepared in large quantities by the settlers when clearing their lands, to assist them meanwhile in purchasing provisions. The exports average annually 22,000 barrels of pot, and 12,000 barrels of pearl ashes. The ashes are the residue after the burning of timber or plants growing at a distance from the sea shore. The Canadian ashes contain a greater proportion of real potash, than those of Dantzic or of Russia.

Grain is rapidly becoming a valuable staple product. In 1838 there was no wheat

exported from Canada by sea; in 1847, 628,001 bushels; flour in 1838, 59,204, in 1847, 650,030 barrels; oats in 1838, none, in 1847, 163,805 barrels; oatmeal, 21,999 barrels; barley, increased from 145 to 23,612 bushels; peas, from 1,415 to 119,252 bushels; beef, from 430 to 2,000 barrels; butter, from 80,000 to 1,000,000 lbs. between 1838 and 1847. The annals of few countries record such an increase in the production of food, beyond the supply required for a rapidly increasing population. Every bushel of grain, every pound of meat that Canada can raise and rear, finds an immediate and profitable market in England, and this stimulus is causing a yearly extension of agriculture.

Many districts in Western Canada are well adapted for the growth of maize or Indian corn. The production of this article of food in the United States was in 1840, 377,531,875 bushels; in 1841, 387,380,185 bushels; in 1842, 494,618,306 bushels. It is the great staple of the agricultural produce of the States; each family of 5 persons, consumes on an average 85 bushels per annum; it is used for distillation; sugar is manufactured from the stalk, and it is kiln-dried, ground into meal, and largely exported. A farmer at Ida, in the United States, declares, that on 5 acres of land which had been cleared for 20 years, grown wheat for 18 years, and never manured, he obtained from 2 bushels of corn 972 bushels of ears, each bushel of ears weighing 37 lbs.; expense, 44 dollars; receipts, 223 dollars; net, 179 dollars.

The farmers of Western Canada are now turning their attention to the growth of maize, which, it is considered, would tend greatly to increase their supply of good pork for the markets of Europe.

Horned cattle, sheep, and swine, multiply with extraordinary rapidity, and animal food will, doubtless, ultimately form a large item in the exportable products of Canada.

Maple Sugar is made in large quantities. Eastern Canada in 1844 produced 2,272,457 lbs.; and Western Canada in 1847, 3,764,243 lbs.; total, 6,463,845 lbs. The raw material is obtained from the maple tree (*Acer saccharinum*), which is tapped in spring with a gauge, by passing it obliquely upwards an inch or more in the wood; the sap flows with considerable rapidity, is boiled down, and clarified, and the sugar amounts to 5 per cent. of the whole sap. 150 trees of 10 to 15 years old, will yield,

in a fair season, 300 lbs. of sugar, 25 gallons of molasses, and a barrel of vinegar. There are extensive forests of the sugar maple tree in Canada, especially about Lake Huron, and many Indians are now engaged in the manufacture. The maple is a beautiful tree; the wood vies with black walnut and mahogany for durability and beauty; the ashes abound in alkali. The trees which come up after the first clearing, produce a more saccharine sap than the original forest maples. In the United States a very large quantity of maple sugar is prepared.

Manufactures.—There are many domestic looms, particularly in Eastern Canada (about 15,000), and several manufactories have been projected, and some established for spinning cotton. A factory on the Richelieu river, nearly opposite St. John's, produces cotton wadding 12 yards long, by 1 wide—even in its texture, double glazed, and free from lint. A mill is being constructed at Sherbrooke to drive 1,000 spindles, capable of turning out yearly 300,000 yards of cotton cloth.

The quantity of iron smelted in Eastern and Western Canada is considerable, and of excellent quality. Copper is also becoming a valuable article in the provincial products.

Shipbuilding is a profitable branch of trade. In 5 years ending 1832, the shipping built averaged annually about 5,000 tons; in one month of 1845 (February), there were building in the several dockyards at Quebec 28 vessels, whose tonnage was 19,110; and the number of artisans employed in their construction was 2,400. About 60 large class steamers have been built for the navigation of the lakes and rivers, the machinery of which was entirely constructed in Canada. The schooners plying on the lakes range from 20 to 200 tons—all built in Western Canada. The steamers range from 50 to 700 tons.

INTERNAL TRADE.—Inland commerce is very active, especially on the great lakes and adjacent canals. Its increase may be conjectured from the traffic on the Welland canal, which connects Lakes Erie and Ontario, and extends about 38 miles. In 1829 it was rendered partially available; in 1837 the tolls collected amounted to £5,516; and in 1847, to £30,549. The Cornwall Canal recently constructed, yielded in 1845 tolls amounting to £51, and in 1847, £3,336.

The revenue collected at the port of Toronto, on Lake Ontario, was, in 1841, £5,050; in 1847, £32,678. At Kingston,

on Lake Ontario, the customs yielded in 1812, £6,826; in 1817, £17,584. The gross customs collected at different inland ports in Western Canada, was in 1812, £10,723; in 1817, £10,009. At the inland ports in Eastern Canada, the increase was from £2,278 to £9,765.

The exports by land from Canada to the United States, amounted in 1832, to 3,641,385 dollars, and in 1841, to 6,656,564 dollars. The total exports from Canada to the United States by land for the ten years, ending 1841, were in value, 40,645,643; and the total imports into Canada from the United States for the same period, 18,180,234 dollars; showing a balance in favour of Canada of exports over imports, 22,465,409 dollars.

The "slides" on the Ottawa yielded tolls for timber passing in 1815, £946; in 1846, £6,054. The "slides" on the Trent in 1815, £6; in 1847, £1,162. The gross revenue from roads was in 1812, £3,821; and in 1847, £21,763. The revenue from inland harbours increased in the same period from £1,664 to £1,643; on canals generally, from £18,535 to £50,131; on bridges, from £210 to £1,094. The amount of rateable property in Upper or Western Canada in 1825, was £997,025; in 1841, £5,996,609; in 1848, about £9,000,000. All this indicates remarkable progress, especially as 1817-18 was a year of depressed trade in Canada.

Twenty-five years ago there were only two newspapers published in Western Canada, now there are an hundred in the province; then there were but eight post-offices, scattered at great distances along the frontier, and the mail was conveyed by land from Lower (Eastern) to Upper (Western) Canada, once a fortnight by land, and from Toronto, westward, once a month; now there are 280 post-offices in Western Canada, and the frequency of postal communication increases with the rapid transmission of letters. In 1834 the number of post-offices in the Canadas was 234; in 1844 the number was greatly increased. There are about 5,000 miles of post roads.

The onward progress of Canada may be illustrated by the following statement respecting the county of Huron in Western Canada. In 1828 it was an untenanted waste; in 13 years it had 6,000 settlers; of these 514 families went on their land destitute of means, and in 1841 their stock and improvements were valued at £90,486;—64 families had means under

£100 a head, and their property had increased to £10,424; 254 families had means under £50 per head, and their means augmented to £40,526; and the value of property possessed by individuals who commenced with a capital exceeding £50 per head, rose to £100,850. Thus the value of stock and improvements in the county of Huron became in 13 years, £212,286. These are not singular instances; similar cheering results of energy and industry, are to be met with in many districts of Canada.

The increase of houses in Western Canada between 1827 and 1847, was at the rate of about 10 per cent. per annum; in England from 1812 to 1831, it was not 3 per cent. Grist mills in Western Canada increased from—

1830 to 1835 . . . 79	1840 to 1845 . . . 58
1835 to 1840 . . . 68	1845 to 1847 . . . 49

The increase during the last period was, consequently, 5.13 per cent. per annum. The increase of horses from 1825 to 1847, was 9 per cent.; of oxen, 6 per cent.; of milch cows, 8 per cent.; of young cattle from 1840 to 1845, 12 per cent.; between the years 1812 and 1847, neat cattle increased 12 per cent.; horses, 33 per cent.; hogs, 23 per cent.; and sheep, 45 per cent. per annum.

The honourable Mr. F. Hincks, the receiver-general of Canada, has favoured me with the following data, which bear evidence of the improvement of the province:—

<i>Population of Eastern Canada.</i>	<i>Population of Western Canada.</i>
1825 . . . 423,630	1824 . . . 151,097
1827 . . . 471,876	1832 . . . 261,060
1831 . . . 511,920	1834 . . . 320,693
1844 . . . 690,782	1836 . . . 372,502
1848 estimate 776,000	1842 . . . 486,055
	1848 . . . 723,292

80 per cent. of the whole population derive their subsistence directly from agriculture.

<i>Acres of Cultivated Land in Western Canada.</i>	<i>Houses of all kinds.</i>
1825 . . . 535,212	1825 . . . 8,876
1830 . . . 775,014	1830 . . . 12,082
1835 . . . 1,208,508	1835 . . . 18,488
1840 . . . 1,710,000	1840 . . . 25,857
1845 . . . 2,311,238	1845 . . . 37,214
1848 . . . 2,673,820	1848 . . . 42,937

<i>Grist Mills.</i>	<i>Saw Mills.</i>
1825 71	1825 394
1830 273	1830 555
1835 352	1835 753
1840 420	1840 963
1845 478	1845 1,272
1847 492	1847 1,489
1848 527	

<i>Carriages kept for pleasure</i>		<i>Merchants' Shops.</i>	
1825	587	1825	456
1830	986	1830	748
1835	1,495	1835	982
1840	1,863	1840	1,123
1845	3,800	1845	1,636
1847	4,685	1848	1,945

<i>Value of Assessed Property</i>		<i>Local direct Taxes.</i>	
1825	£2,256,874	1825	£10,235
1830	2,929,269	1830	13,335
1835	3,880,994	1835	22,464
1840	5,607,426	1840	37,465
1845	7,778,917	1845	76,291
1847	8,567,001	1848	86,058

Public Buildings in Western Canada.

Town Halls	68
Churches	895
Colleges and High Schools	39
Common Schools	2,464

Produce.

Bushels of Wheat	{	1842	3,221,991
	{	1848	7,558,773
" Oats	{	1842	4,788,167
	{	1848	7,055,730
" Rye	{	1842	292,970
	{	1848	446,293
" Peas	{	1842	1,193,551
	{	1848	1,753,846
" Maize	{	1842	691,359
	{	1848	1,137,555
" Barley	{	1842	1,031,355
	{	1848	515,727
" Potatoes	{	1842	8,080,397
	{	1848	4,751,331
Wool	{	1842	lbs. 1,302,510
	{	1848	2,339,756
Neat Cattle	{	1842	Head. 504,963
	{	1848	565,845
Horses	{	1842	113,657
	{	1848	151,389

Sheep	1842	Head. 575,730
	1848	833,807
Hogs	1842	391,366
	1848	448,241

No comparative Returns of the following:—

	1848.	lbs.
Flax		41,590
Butter		3,380,406
Cheese		668,357

Owing to causes which I need not explain, the last census was not taken for Eastern Canada. The statistics given, therefore, are for Western Canada alone.

MARITIME COMMERCE.—Quebec and Montreal are the seaports of Canada. In 1800 the arrivals at Quebec consisted of 64 vessels, with a burthen of 14,293 tons; in 1842, 864 vessels, of 307,687 tons; and in 1845, 1,475 vessels, of 559,712 tons.

In the appendix to the minutes of evidence before the select committee of the House of Lords in 1848, the *declared* value of British and Irish produce exported from the United Kingdom to Canada, is stated for 1845 at £2,212,339, and the *official* value of the same at £4,511,699. The shipping which entered the ports of the United Kingdom from Canada during the same year was, 1,580 vessels, of 629,824 tons.

The value of the import and export trade has increased in nearly the same ratio as the shipping. The subjoined tables show the amount of the sea commerce for the 8 years following the re-union of Eastern and Western Canada in 1840:—

Value of Imports at the Ports of Quebec and Montreal since the re-union of the Provinces.

Years.	Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Other Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
QUEBEC:	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1841	74,457	775	57,922	—	282,610	17,343	179,109
1842	75,701	1,016	28,745	—	16,275	56,363	178,084
1843	234,449	1,039	42,390	72	27,997	24,647	330,597
1844	396,196	994	48,310	123	59,646	33,798	539,070
1845	486,047	5,321	26,982	64	52,970	16,145	585,533
1846	496,099	—	38,361	1,481	52,148	28,854	617,245
1847	473,417	624	42,078	813	109,082	28,985	655,000
1848	381,625	1,585	54,056	3,020	50,803	23,302	514,393
1849	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
MONTREAL:							
1841	1,632,480	—	38,615	—	10,763	17,078	1,699,837
1842	1,614,981	1,072	32,686	—	558	12,570	1,661,868
1843	911,828	1,255	54,576	—	58,509	33,751	1,059,921
1844	1,803,226	367	55,378	—	143,219	30,922	2,034,315
1845	1,990,864	8,329	33,876	—	190,111	20,446	2,153,631
1846	1,734,760	31	37,111	—	90,513	31,205	1,893,623
1847	1,491,877	270	49,487	—	126,557	27,785	1,695,978
1848	1,062,948	—	29,522	—	107,873	17,138	1,217,604
1849	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

THE ARTICLES OF EXPORT AND IMPORT AT QUEBEC AND MONTREAL.

Value of Exports from Quebec and Montreal.

Years.	Great Britain.	British Colonies.			United States.	Other Foreign States.	Total.
		West Indies.	North America.	Elsewhere.			
QUEBEC:	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1841	1,102,542	31,337	78,946	191,952	417	11,853	1,420,049
1842	592,107	24,187	56,578	127,593	—	11,446	811,922
1843	1,068,288	11,133	33,706	—	—	10,968	1,121,097
1844	1,178,326	3,381	31,899	1,025	467	3,968	1,222,067
1845	1,619,702	1,450	33,728	—	750	4,871	1,690,562
1846	1,478,573	989	51,394	—	—	116	1,531,074
1847	1,413,599	—	88,551	1,859	921	349	1,505,259
1848	1,031,121	—	79,156	—	1,618	415	1,115,619
1849	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
MONTREAL:	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1841	526,061	11,782	35,513	2,028	—	—	575,160
1842	565,681	5,137	28,137	—	—	—	598,955
1843	285,876	5,720	27,179	—	—	—	319,067
1844	597,276	3,444	16,766	—	—	450	617,916
1845	571,096	—	21,339	—	—	—	592,436
1846	506,697	—	18,784	—	5,293	—	511,100
1847	616,563	—	32,878	—	22,587	400	697,794
1848	283,104	—	27,474	—	11,124	358	322,061
1849	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

The variety of articles exported from the United Kingdom to the British North American Colonies is shown in a return laid before parliament, 22nd August, 1848, which states the declared value of some of the principal exports to British North America to be as follows, in the year 1847:—Cotton manufactures, £606,614; woollen manufactures, £586,151; iron and steel, £342,166; apparel, slops, and haberdashery, £356,006; linen manufactures, £147,670; hardware and cutlery, £166,991; cordage, £102,807; silk manufactures, £117,125; leather, saddlery, and harness, £73,754; brass and copper manufactures, £32,515; earthenware, £52,869; hats, £35,984; soap and candles, £16,671; stationery, £54,157; glass, £33,890; tin wares, £19,809; umbrellas and parasols, £8,372; apothecary wares, £16,377; musical instruments, 5,129; painters' colours, £24,403; plate, watches, &c., £17,020; books, £19,013; cabinet wares, £7,548; fishing tackle of all sorts, £39,196; lead and shot, £9,126; and various other articles—the whole amounting to £3,231,180 declared value, which is far less than the real value.

The principal articles imported into the United Kingdom from the British North American Colonies in 1847, consisted of timber not sawn or split, 590,557 loads; deals, battens, or other timber sawn or split, 494,084 loads; staves, 32,308; ashes

(pearl and pot), 99,713 cwt.; wheat, 87,199; quarters; wheat and flour, 1,079,940 cwt.; beef salted, 1,272 cwt.; pork do. 8,001 cwt.; fish, 83,486 cwt.; oil (train and spermaceti), 10,324 tuns; skins and furs undressed, viz., bear, 5,870; beaver, 23,132; fox, 27,102; lynx, 32,299; marten, 150,048; mink, 12,850; musquash, 260,982; otter, 8,021; seal, 443,438; wolf, 10,730. The following statement shews the—

Exports from Canada by Sea (exclusive of Timber), for the years 1838 to 1847 inclusive.

Years.	Ashes.	Butter.	Beef.	Barley.	Flour.
	barrels.	lbs.	barrels.	busheis.	barrels.
1838	29,454	80,536	439	146	59,204
1839	25,180	72,248	2,310	130	48,427
1840	24,498	403,730	3,685	60	315,612
1841	22,012	211,497	2,968	4,504	356,210
1842	27,641	542,341	2,998	867	294,799
1843	34,916	374,297	7,195	6,940	299,957
1844	35,743	160,800	5,568	63,755	415,197
1845	30,916	812,475	2,140	27,625	442,228
1846	26,011	786,701	2,826	6287	555,602
1847	19,243	1,036,555	1,890	23,012	651,030

Years.	Oatmeal.	Peas.	Pork.	Wheat.	Oats.
	barrels.	busheis.	barrels.	busheis.	busheis.
1838	522	1,415	8,868	None.	None.
1839	50	2,835	6,479	3,336	—
1840	6,008	59,878	11,250	142,059	—
1841	4,567	123,574	14,795	592,862	—
1842	6,754	78,985	40,288	201,107	5,568
1843	5,327	88,318	10,684	144,233	3,651
1844	6,725	130,355	11,164	282,183	24,574
1845	1,570	220,912	3,493	396,252	53,530
1846	5,930	216,339	5,598	544,747	46,060
1847	21,999	119,252	4,974	628,001	165,805

CHAPTER VI.

REVENUE, EXPENDITURE, AND FINANCIAL STATE OF CANADA; BANKS, COINS, CIRCULATING MEDIUM; PRICES OF PROVISIONS, WAGES OF LABOUR, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES; PROPERTY, MOVABLE AND IMMOVABLE; SUMMARY ADVICE ON "SEPARATION" OR "ANNEXATION," &c.

REVENUE.—At the period of the British conquest of Canada the public income was very trifling; in 1806, it amounted to £29,116, and the expenditure was £35,131. The revenue of Eastern and Western Canada stood thus in the undermentioned years:—

Years.	Revenue Receipts.			Expenditure.		
	Eastern Canada.	Western Canada.	Total.	Eastern Canada.	Western Canada.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1824	83,309	61,566	144,875	85,763	43,553	127,316
1839	147,254	157,627	304,881	165,991	196,310	362,300
1842	United	.	349,483	—	—	476,304
1847	"	.	506,826	—	—	458,021
1849	Estimated	.	574,640	—	—	565,403

The annual revenue of the province is derived from *Custom* duties, about £450,000, of which one-third is yielded by the inland ports on the lakes, and United States frontier; the remainder consists of sea Customs. The *Excise* yields £30,000 a year, which is obtained from the licensing of shops, inns, stills, ale and beer houses, auctioneers, steam-boats, hawkers and peddlars, and billiard-tables, and from a duty on auction sales. The *Tolls* from public works are estimated for 1849, at £50,000; in 1847 the gross receipts were £83,333; viz.: from canals, £50,131; harbours, £4,613; bridges, £1,094; locks and slides on the Ottawa and Trent rivers, £5,702; roads, £21,763. The territorial revenue is from £20,000 to £25,000 a year; of this sum the crown lands yielded in 1847, £22,330.

Tariff or Custom Duties.—Under the authority of an act of the Imperial Parliament, passed in the 9th and 10th years of her majesty's reign, c. 94, entitled, "an act to enable the legislatures of certain British possessions to repeal or reduce certain Custom duties," the Canadian legislature passed an act, No. one, 10 and 11 Vic., c. 31, on 28th July, 1847, repealing certain imperial acts, 9 and 10 Vic., c. 94, and 8 and 9 Vic., c. 93, and various provincial acts, and imposing the following duties in lieu of all other duties of Customs inwards:—

Animals:—	Duty	Currency
	£	s. d.
Cows and Heifers, each	.	1 2 6
Calves, each	.	0 5 0
Goats, each	.	0 2 6
Horses, Mares, Geldings, Colts, Fillies,		
Foals, each	.	1 15 0
Kids, each	.	0 2 6
Lambs, each	.	0 1 0
Oxen, Bulls, Steers, each	.	1 15 0
Pigs (sucking), each	.	0 0 6
Swine and Hogs, each	.	0 5 0
Sheep, each	.	0 2 0
Candles.—Wax or Sperm, the lb.	.	0 0 3
Tallow, the lb.	.	0 0 1
All other kinds	.	0 0 2
Chocolate, the lb.	.	0 0 2
Cocoa, the lb.	.	0 0 0½
Coffee, Green, the lb.	.	0 0 1½
Roasted, the lb.	.	0 0 2½
Ground, the lb.	.	0 0 4
Corn Brooms, the dozen	.	0 1 3
Fish, Salted or Dried, per 112 lbs.	.	0 2 6
Pickled, the barrel	.	0 5 0
Flour, the barrel of 196 lbs.	.	0 3 0
Fruit, viz.:—Almonds, the lb.	.	0 0 1½
Apples, the bushel	.	0 0 6
Ditto, dried, the bushel	.	0 1 0
Currants and Figs, the lb.	.	0 0 1
Nuts of all kinds, the lb.	.	0 0 1
Peaches, Pears, and Quinces, the bushel	.	0 1 0
Prunes, the lb.	.	0 0 1½
Raisins—Muscatel, Bloom, and Bunch, in boxes, the lb.	.	0 0 1
Ditto, otherwise, the lb.	.	0 0 1
Glass.—Window and Common German Sheet Glass, per box of 50 feet	.	0 1 3
Grain, viz.:—Wheat, Barley, Buckwheat, Bere, Bigg, Rye, Beans, and Peas, the quarter	.	0 3 0
Maize or Indian Corn, the quarter of 480 lbs.	.	0 3 0
Oats, the quarter	.	0 2 0
Meal of the above Grains, and of Wheat not bolted, the 196 lbs.	.	0 2 0
Bran or Shorts, the 112 lbs.	.	0 0 3
Hops, the lb.	.	0 0 3
Honey, the lb.	.	0 0 1
India Rubber Boots and Shoes, the pair	.	0 0 7½
Leather, viz.:—Goat Skins, tanned, tawed, or in any way dressed, the dozen	.	0 5 0
Lamb or Sheep Skins, tanned, tawed, or in any way dressed, the dozen	.	0 2 6
Calf Skins, tanned, tawed, or in any way dressed, the lb.	.	0 0 1
Kip Skins, the lb.	.	0 0 2
Harness and Upper Leathers, the lb.	.	0 0 1½
Sole Leather, the lb.	.	0 0 2
Leather cut into shapes, the lb.	.	0 0 4
Patent or Glazed Leather, the lb.	.	0 0 4
All Leather not above described	.	0 0 1½

	Duty Currency.				Duty Currency.		
	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Leather Manufactures, viz.:—				Sugar.—In which are preserves, per cwt. .	1	6	6
Women's Boots and Shoes, the dozen . .	0	6	6	Succades, including Confectionary, 20 per			
Girls' Boots and Shoes under 7 inches in				cent. ad valorem, and on the lb. . .	0	0	2
length, the dozen, including all kinds . .	0	2	6	Syrups, except Spirits, the gallon . . .	0	1	0
Children's Boots and Shoes over 3 inches				Tea, the lb.	0	0	2½
in length, the dozen	0	2	6	Tobacco, viz.:—Unmanufactured, the lb. .	0	0	1½
Infant's Shoes under 3 inches in length,				Manufactured, the lb.	0	0	2
the dozen	0	1	6	Snuff, the lb.	0	0	6
Men's Boots, the pair	0	2	0	Cigars, the lb.	0	3	0
Men's Shoes, the pair	0	0	7½	Wine—(in addition to 10 per cent. on the			
Boys' Boots under 8 inches in length,				value, including cask and bottles)—			
the pair	0	1	0	the old Wine gallon	0	1	0
Boys' Shoes under 8 inches in length,				Wood.—Staves, Standard or Measurement,			
the pair	0	0	4	per mille	1	5	0
Liquids, not Spirituous, viz.:—				Punchon or West India, viz.:—			
Alc and Beer in Casks, per gallon . . .	0	0	4	White Oak, per standard mille . . .	0	10	6
Ditto in Bottles, per dozen	0	1	3	Red Oak	0	7	6
Cider and Perry, the gallon	0	0	1½	Ash and Barrel	0	4	0
Vinegar, the gallon	0	0	3	Deals, Pine, per Quebec standard 100 .	0	15	0
Macaroni and Vermicelli, the lb. . . .	0	0	1½	Spruce	0	7	6
Molasses and Treacle, the cwt.	0	4	0	Handspikes, per dozen	0	0	3
Oils.—Olive in casks, the gallon	0	0	5	Oars, per pair	0	0	3
Ditto in jars or bottles, the gallon . .	0	1	3	Planks, Boards, and all kinds of Sawed			
Lard, the gallon	0	0	5	Lumber not herein charged with duty,			
Linseed Oil, the gallon	0	0	2½	per 1000 superficial feet, inch thick,			
Sperm Oil, the gallon	0	0	6	and so in proportion for any greater			
Other Oils from creatures living in the				thickness	0	7	6
sea	0	0	1	Pine, White, and in proportion for any			
Paper, &c.:—Coarse or Wrapping, the cwt.	0	2	9	smaller quantity thereof, per 1000			
Printing, the cwt.	0	5	0	cubic feet	1	5	0
Writing, the cwt.	0	10	0	Red, per 1000 cubic feet	1	15	0
Drawing, Music, Marbled or Glazed,				Oak, per 1000 cubic feet	2	15	0
Tissue, Bristol or Drawing Cards, the lb.	0	0	1½	Birch, per 1000 cubic feet	2	10	0
Pasteboard and Cards, the cwt.	0	4	0	Ash, Elm, Tamarack or Haematac, and			
Milled or Trunkmakers' Boards, the cwt.	0	3	0	other woods not herein charged with			
Playing Cards, the pack	0	0	3	duty, per 1000 cubic feet	1	5	0
Potatoes, the bushel	0	0	3	<i>The following Articles shall be liable to a duty of One</i>			
Provisions, viz.:—Butter, the cwt. . . .	0	7	6	<i>pound on every One hundred pounds of the value</i>			
Cheese, the cwt.	0	5	0	<i>thereof:—</i>			
Meats.—Bacon and Hams, ditto salted,				Ashes; Anchors and chain cables; Bark; Burr			
ditto pickled, the cwt.	0	6	0	stones, unwrought; Berries, nuts, vegetables, and			
Bacon and Hams, fresh, the cwt. . . .	0	4	0	woods, used in dyeing; coals, coke, and cinders;			
Rum, for every gallon (of old wine mea-				Cotton wool and cotton yarn; Copper in bars, pig,			
sure) proof by Sykes' Hydrometer, all				sheathing, and sheet; Cocoa nut oil; Drugs used			
Spirits above that strength to be re-				<i>solely</i> for dyeing; Flower roots; Fire wood; Grease			
duced to equivalent of proof	0	1	3	and Seraps; Hides; Hardwood for furniture, unman-			
Sweetened or Mixed, per gallon	0	3	0	ufactured; Hay; Hemp, flax, and tow, undressed;			
Salt, from Mines, known as Rock Salt, and				Indigo; Iron, bar, rod, and nail boiler plates, pig,			
Salt made from Sea Water, per ton . .	0	1	6	railroad bars, seraps, and old for re-melting; Junk or			
Coarse, made from Salt Springs, per				oakum; Lard; Lead in pig; Marble in block, unpo-			
bushel	0	0	2	lished; Oars of all metals; Palm oil; Resin; Saw			
Fine or Basket and stoved 5 per cent.				logs; Straw; Sheet and hoop iron; steel in bar; Stone			
ad valorem and per bushel.	0	0	2	for building; Soda ash; Tallow; Teasles; Tin, sheet			
Spices, viz.:—Cassia, Cinnamon, and				and block; Trees, shrubs, bulbs, and Roots; Type			
Cloves, the lb.	0	0	2½	metal, in blocks or pigs; Tar and pitch; Wool;			
Nutmegs, the lb.	0	0	5	Woollen yarn; Yellow metal.			
Pimento, Pepper, Ginger, and Allspice,				<i>The following Articles shall be liable to a duty of Five</i>			
the lb.	0	0	1	<i>pounds on every One hundred pounds of the value</i>			
Mace, the lb.	0	0	4	<i>thereof:—</i>			
Spirits, except Rum, as of Proof, the old				Books, printed, unbound, or in sheets; Drugs, being			
Wine gallon	0	2	0	in a crude or unprepared state, except dye stuffs;			
Sweetened or Mixed, including Bitters,				Furs, skins and peltries, dressed or undressed; Gums;			
per gallon	0	3	0	Rice; Shingles; Tortoise shell; Wire, iron.			
Sugar.—Refined or Candy, per cwt. . .	1	7	6	<i>The following Articles shall be liable to a duty of Seven</i>			
Muscovado, per cwt.	0	15	3	<i>pounds ten shillings on every One hundred pounds</i>			
Clayed Sugar (10 per cent. ad valorem)				<i>of the value thereof:—</i>			
and per cwt.	0	15	3	Books, blank, bound, unbound, or in sheets; Burr			
Bastard, per cwt. (and £10 for every							
£100 value)	0	12	0				

stones, wrought; Chicory; Chains; Cotton, manufactures of; Cordage; Canvass; Camblets and cambletines; Cane work; Casks, empty; Casts in plaster of Paris or composition, unless their material is otherwise charged with a higher duty; Drawings, engravings, maps, globes; Extracts and essences used as medicines; Earthen and stoneware; Furs and skins, manufactures of; Fins and skins, the produce of creatures living in the sea; Feathers; Flowers, artificial, not silk; Goods, whose foundation is wool; Glass manufactures, not otherwise described; Gunpowder; Guns and fire-arms; Gold and silver leaf; Hair, manufactures of; Horns, horn tips and pieces; Hardware, shelf goods, and cutlery; Hats; Hemp, flax or tow in any way dressed; Juice of limes; Lemons or oranges, not mixed with spirits or sweetened, so as to be syrup; Ink, printers'; Ivory, bone, and horn, manufactures of; Lead, manufactures of; Lead for paint not ground with oil; Lead ground in oil for paint; Linen and linen manufactures; Mules and asses; Mustard; Medicines; Musical Instruments of wood; Mercury; Marble, polished or cut; Oil or spirits of turpentine; Oil, castor; Oil, all not otherwise enumerated; Oil cloth; Oysters, lobsters, turtles, and all other shell fish, fresh; Paints, unground; Paints, water colours; Paint brushes; Quills; Silk, raw; Silks, manufactures of, not millinery made up; Silk, all goods being in whole or part silk, not otherwise specified; Silks, sewing, cord, and tassels; Spemaceti, except candles; Sponge; Starch; Straw boards for bookbinders; Sulphur; Tiles and roofing; Toys; Turpentine; Thread, linen; Vetches; Varnish; Whalebone; Worsted, manufactures of; Woollen, manufactures of; Wax; Wax, manufactures of, except candles; Wood, all manufactured articles of, having no part metal; and all goods, wares, and merchandizes, not otherwise charged with duty, and not herein declared to be free of duty.

The following Articles shall be liable to a duty of Ten pounds on every One hundred pounds of the value thereof:—

Biscuits and crackers; Bastard sugar, together with 12s. per cwt., and clayed sugar, with 15s. 3d. per cwt.; Cork and cork manufactures; Eggs; Fruit, unenumerated; Leather manufactures not described; Machines for agricultural purposes, except threshing machines and fanning mills; Meats prepared otherwise than by salt or pickle; Musical instruments of metal; Oil, animal, except lard—vegetable, not otherwise enumerated—essential, chemical and volatile, perfumed; Paper manufactures not otherwise charged with duty; Plate and plated ware; Poultry, alive, or dead; Sausages and puddings; Seeds, garden, flower, and vegetable; Soaps of all kinds; Vegetables, fresh; Wine, in addition to 1s. a gallon, old wine measure.

The following Articles shall be liable to a duty of Twelve pounds and ten shillings for every One hundred pounds of the value thereof:—

Axes and scythes; Billiard and bagatelle balls of wood and ivory; Balls used at bowls or nine pins; Billiard tables; Bagatelle tables; Camphine oil; Carriages and vehicles; Carriages and vehicles, parts of; Castings; Clocks and watches; Clocks and watches, parts of; Dice; Flowers, artificial, in part or whole silk; Fanning or bark mills; Jewellery, set or unset; Machinery of all kinds and parts thereof; Silk millinery made up; Silk velvet; Threshing machines and fanning and bark mills.

The following Articles shall be liable to a duty of Fifteen pounds on every One hundred pounds of the value thereof:—

Extracts, essences, and perfumery, not otherwise provided for; Fish, preserved in oil; Fruit, preserved; Ginger, preserved; Pickles and sauces.

The following Articles shall be liable to a duty of Twenty pounds on every One hundred pounds of the value thereof:—

Roulette tables; Succades and Confectionary made of sugar, either in whole or in part, in addition to 2d. per lb.

TABLE OF EXEMPTIONS.—Anatomical Preparations when imported expressly for the use of any college or school of anatomy or surgery, incorporated by royal charter or act of Parliament, not imported for sale.

Copies of the Holy Scriptures printed in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and not imported for sale.

Books and Maps and Illustrative Drawings, imported for the use of any library to which the public may have free admission, as also for the libraries of either branch of the legislature.

Coin and Bullion.

Donations of Books or Clothing specially imported for the use of, or to be distributed gratuitously by any charitable society in this province.

Fish, fresh, not described.

Horses and Carriages of Travellers, and horses, cattle, and carriages and other vehicles, when employed in carrying merchandize, together with the necessary harness and tackle, so long as the same are *bona fide* in use for that purpose, except the horses, cattle, carriages, and vehicles, and harness, of persons hawking goods, wares, and merchandizes through the province for the purpose of retail, and the horses, carriages, and harness of any circus or equestrian troop for exhibition. The horses, carriages, caravans, and harness of any menagerie, to be free. Horses and cattle belonging to persons coming into the province for the purpose of actually settling therein.

Hides, Offal, and Tallow of cattle and swine, slaughtered in bond.

Manures of all kinds.

Models of Machinery, and of other inventions and improvements in the arts.

Packages containing dutiable articles.

Philosophical Apparatus, instruments, books, maps, stationery, busts, and casts of marble, bronze, alabaster or plaster of Paris, paintings, drawings, engravings, etchings, specimens of sculptures, cabinets of coins, medals, gems, and all other collections of antiquities, provided the same be specially imported in good faith for the use of any society incorporated or established for philosophical or literary pursuits, or for the encouragement of fine arts, or for the use or by the order of any university, college, academy, school, or seminary of learning within this province.

Philosophical Apparatus, &c., &c., imported for use by any public lecturer for the purpose of gain, and to be re-exported, shall be allowed to be entered under bond of two good and sufficient persons for their exportation within the specified time.

Arms or Clothing which any contractor or contractors, commissary or commissaries, shall import or bring into the province for the use of her majesty's army and navy, or for the use of the Indian Na-

tions in this province: Provided the duty otherwise payable would be defrayed or borne by the Treasury of the United Kingdom or of this province.

Specimens of Natural History, Mineralogy, or Botany. Seeds of all kinds, farming utensils and implements of husbandry, and animals for the improvement of stock when specially imported in good faith by any society incorporated or established for the encouragement of agriculture.

Wearing Apparel in actual use, and other personal effects not merchandize, implements and tools of trade of handy-craftsmen, in the occupation or employment of persons coming into the province for the purpose of actually settling therein.

[The native produce and manufactures of all or any such of the other British North American colonies as shall admit the native produce and manufactures of Canada free of duty, shall be entitled to exemption from duties under this act, with the exception of spirituous liquors.]

Also Salt, salted or cured meats, flour, biscuits, molasses, cordage, pitch, tar, turpentine, leather, leather-ware, fishermen's clothing, and hosiery, fishing craft, utensils and instruments imported into the district of Gaspé from the United Kingdom or the Channel Islands or neighbouring colonies, for the use of the fisheries carried on therein, subject to such regulations as the principal officer of Customs at the port of Quebec shall make, and which he is hereby empowered to establish for the purpose of ascertaining that such articles are *bona fide* intended to be applied to the use of such fisheries.

The following articles are prohibited to be imported, under a penalty of Fifty pounds, together with the forfeiture of the Parcel or Package of Goods in which the same shall be found:—

Books and Drawings of an immoral or indecent character. Coin, base or counterfeit.

In this tariff Canada levies higher duties on British manufactures than has been hitherto authorised by the Imperial Parliament;—viz.: $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.:—the previous tariff was at the rate of 5 per cent. There is at present no distinction made between British and foreign goods; it is in fact a free import tariff, except in so far as is necessary for the obtainment of a provincial revenue. England receives no favour whatever on the export of her goods to Canada; the Canadians are at liberty to "buy in the cheapest, and sell in the dearest market;" and the alteration in the navigation laws enables them to employ the shipping of any country, which can carry their goods with the greatest economy. It cannot be said that the "mother country" has sought any advantage from its government of this province of the empire.

The gross amount of revenue from customs at the principal stations in Eastern and Western Canada, was in—

Revenue.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.
Districts:—	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Quebec	72,923	55,843	77,879	74,425	78,652	70,831	63,325
Montreal	152,403	102,482	223,690	227,765	179,596	171,285	140,499
St. John's	17,759	22,350	36,016	41,165	40,422	45,411	22,341
Hamilton	7,604	12,191	16,989	22,011	20,726	26,768	30,326
Toronto	8,390	17,603	25,105	22,195	33,529	32,678	27,752
Kingston	6,826	9,278	18,527	19,924	19,273	17,584	10,937
Eastern Canada Inland Ports	2,278	3,771	8,368	10,857	11,512	9,765	—
Western Canada	10,723	18,052	34,754	36,614	38,602	40,309	38,849
Total	278,906	141,570	441,328	434,956	422,312	414,631	334,029
Provincial Excise Duties received	33,991	30,741	33,846	30,082	18,702	33,056	29,614
Territorial Revenues	51,775	97,862	6,570	25,783	23,906	26,284	51,959
Gross Revenue from Canals	18,535	25,751	38,347	28,957	39,340	50,131	46,493
„ Harbours	1,664	4,450	3,822	4,360	4,340	4,643	3,663
„ Bridges	210	563	229	1,432	1,334	1,094	1,590
„ Locks and Slides	—	618	1,560	2,478	9,300	5,702	4,368
„ Roads	3,821	3,250	300	3,816	7,170	21,763	22,499
Total Gross Revenue from Public Works	24,232	34,604	44,259	41,039	61,486	83,335	78,613
Ordinary Expenses of Management	1,282	2,320	3,524	6,339	10,614	9,470	—
Repairs and other Expenditure	6,580	6,207	19,292	7,198	2,391	31,307	51,519
Total Deductions	7,862	8,527	22,816	13,538	13,006	40,778	—
Nett Revenue from Public Works	16,369	26,076	21,443	27,501	48,480	42,557	—

The revenue raised for local purposes in Western Canada is shown in the annexed statement, which exhibits the value of assessed property in Western Canada, as rated under provision of an act of parliament, including duties on shops, distilleries,

billiard-tables, hawkers, pedlars, steam-boats, ale and beer houses, and the taxes for *general local purposes*, and exclusive of the taxes and values in the various cities and incorporated towns, except the general Excise

PROVINCIAL AND DISTRICT TAXATION IN WESTERN CANADA. 149

Districts in Western Canada.	Assessed Value of Property.	Taxes.		Total.
		Pro- vincial.	District.	
	£	£	£	£
Bathurst . . .	329,410	142	2,607	2,749
Brock . . .	357,156	333	4,320	4,654
Colborne . . .	386,794	242	2,358	2,601
Dalhousie . . .	397,080	384	2,370	2,754
Eastern . . .	436,550	827	3,243	4,071
Gore . . .	846,066	3,031	8,740	11,772
Home . . .	1,105,396	2,803	10,957	13,761
Huron . . .	148,754	261	1,188	1,449
Johnstown . . .	459,789	1,230	4,909	6,160
London . . .	582,981	1,976	8,620	9,696
Midland . . .	462,483	2,226	4,031	6,258
Newcastle . . .	265,271	2,335	5,100	7,435
Niagara . . .	519,536	922	5,909	6,831
Ottawa . . .	111,418	120	1,208	1,328
Prince Edward . . .	316,703	127	2,345	2,473
Simcoe . . .	224,485	233	3,135	3,368
Talbot . . .	288,646	753	2,692	3,446
Victoria . . .	285,171	240	2,135	2,375
Wellington . . .	477,613	1,515	7,066	8,582
Western . . .	434,235	587	4,849	5,436
Total . . .				

The tax for schools and school-houses, in 1848, amounted to £29,668; ditto building and supporting lunatic asylums, £1,348. Great portions of the taxes for district purposes are raised for temporary objects, such as repairs of particular works, building gaols and lock-up houses, while the school-rate includes a very large sum for building school-houses. The general average of taxation in Western Canada for purely district purposes, is about 3*d.* on the valuation in the districts; in cities and towns it is differently regulated.

In all new countries the value of the labour in erecting houses is much greater than that of the materials used. In Canada, the dwellings of the earlier settlers are generally termed "shanties." Such dwellings are not liable to any taxes.

The houses taxed in Western Canada since 1827 have been—

—	1827.	1832.	1837.	1842.	1847
No. of Houses	9,889	14,550	22,057	21,638	42,737
Additional fire-places . . .	1,502	2,080	2,591	6,823	9,218
Value asses ^d . £	352,304	514,067	751,883	1,235,189	1,679,496

The assessments, it is stated, are very much below the *actual* value of the property assessed. They merely indicate the value according to the rate prescribed by the provincial act regulating assessments in Upper Canada. By that act, the *highest* value at which a house is rated is £60, or if containing more than two fire-places, £10 more for every additional fire-place. Houses, therefore, that have cost from £300 to £3,000 are, in these returns, rated as of the

value of £60. So also mills and other valuable buildings. Cultivated land is valued at £1 per acre, though its actual value may, on the average, be estimated at £5 per acre. Uncultivated lands are valued at 4*s.* per acre, though the government sell none for less than twice that price. It would not be unsafe, therefore, to multiply the amount of the assessed value by 5, to arrive at an approximation to the *actual* value of the property in Upper Canada. Thus, £7,139,901 × 5 = £35,699,555. These calculations take no account also of a large amount of local public property, yielding a considerable annual revenue, such as turn-pike roads, market buildings, &c., belonging to local corporate bodies, and to the several districts.

The local taxes or district rates are collected from each individual, at the rating of one penny in the pound, according to the quantity of land and other property he may possess, agreeably to the assessed value fixed by law, viz.:—

Every acre of arable, pasture, or meadow land, £1; every acre of uncultivated land, 4*s.*; every town lot, £50. Every house built with timber squared or hewed on two sides, of one story, with not more than two fire-places, £20; ditto for every additional fire-place, £4. Every house built of squared or flatted timber on two sides, of two stories, with not more than two fire-places, £30; ditto for every additional fire-place, £8. Every framed house under two stories in height, with not more than two fire-places, £35; ditto for every additional fire-place, £5. Every brick or stone house of one story, and not more than two fire-places, £40; every additional fire-place, £10. Every framed brick or stone house of two stories, and not more than two fire-places, £60; ditto for every additional fire-place, £10. Every grist mill, wrought by water, with one pair of stones, £150; ditto with every additional pair, £50. Every saw-mill, £100. Every merchant's shop, £200. Every store-house, £200. Every stone house, £199. Every horse of the age of three years and upwards, £8. Oxen of the age of four years and upwards, £1. Milch cows, £3. Horned cattle, from two to four years and upwards, £4. Every close carriage with four wheels, kept for pleasure, £100. Every open carriage, or curricule, ditto, £25. Every other carriage, or gig, with two wheels, ditto, £20. Every waggon kept for pleasure, £15. Every stove erected and used in a room

where there is no fire-place, is considered as a fire-place.

Every person inserted on the assessment roll is, in proportion to the estimate of his property, held liable to work on the highways or roads in every year, as follows:—If his property be rated at £25, 2 days; ditto £25 to £50, 3 days; ditto £50 to £75, 4 days; ditto, £75 to £100, 5 days; ditto £100 to £150, 6 days; ditto £150 to £200, 7 days; ditto £200 to £250, 8 days; ditto, £250 to £300, 9 days; ditto £300 to £350, 10 days; ditto £350 to £400, 11 days; ditto £400 to £500, 12 days.

For every £100 above £500 to £1000, one day; for every £200 above £1000 to £2000, ditto; for every £300 above £2000 to £3000, ditto; for every £500 above £3500, ditto.

Every person possessed of a waggon, cart, or team of horses, oxen, or beasts of burthen or draught used to draw the same, to work on the highways 3 days. Every male inhabitant, from 21 to 50, not rated on the assessment roll, is compelled to work on the highways 3 days. Persons emigrating to this province, intending to become settlers, and not having been resident 6 months, are exempt; and all indigent persons, by reason of sickness, age, or numerous family, are exempt at the discretion of the magistrates.

Any person liable may compound, if he thinks fit, by paying 5s. per day for each cart, &c., and 2s. 6d. for each day's duty; to be paid within 10 days after demand made by an authorised surveyor, or the magistrates can issue their distress for double the amount and costs.

By subsequent resolutions for raising £500,000 for making roads, the Canadians resolved:—

- 1st. That for the purpose of providing the ways and means for payment of the interest on the sum of £500,000, to be expended on the public highways in this province, that the statute labour, now by law required to be performed, be commuted for a certain sum to be paid in lieu thereof.
- 2nd. That the sum at which the commutation be fixed be 2s. 6d. for each day.
- 3rd. That the following additional rates be imposed on the inhabitants of this province, the proceeds whereof to be applied to the payment of the interest of the said sum of £500,000:—Every horse (not being a stallion used for covering mares), gelding, or mare, over three years old, 1s. 3d.; stallion used for covering mares, 2s.; single-horse pleasure waggon, 2s. 6d.; two-horse pleasure waggon, 5s.; two-wheeled carriage used for pleasure, 5s.; four-wheeled open carriage used for pleasure, 10s.; four-wheeled close carriage used for pleasure, 15s.; four-wheeled carriage used for the conveyance of passengers, £2 10s.; a still, £5.

EXPENDITURE.—At the period of the reunion of the provinces in 1840–41, a permanent civil list was agreed to, and became a part of the act of union; viz.: 3 and 4 Vic., c. 35, to which the following schedules were annexed:—

SCHEDULE A.	
Governor	£7,000
Lieutenant-Governor	1,000
<i>Western Canada</i> —	
1 Chief Justice	1,500
4 Puisne Judges, at 900 <i>l.</i> each	3,600
1 Vice Chancellor	1,125
<i>Eastern Canada</i> —	
1 Chief Justice, Quebec	1,500
3 Puisne Judges, Quebec, at 900 <i>l.</i> each	2,700
1 Chief Justice, Montreal	1,100
3 Puisne Judges, Montreal, at 900 <i>l.</i> each	2,700
1 Resident Judge at Three Rivers	900
1 Judge of the Inferior District of St. Francis	500
1 Judge of the Inferior District of Gaspé	500
Pensions to the Judges, Salaries of the Attorneys and Solicitors-General, and Contingent and Miscellaneous Expenses of Administration of Justice throughout the Province of Canada,	20,875
	<u>£45,000</u>

SCHEDULE B.	
Civil Secretaries and their Offices	8,000
Provincial Secretaries and their Offices	3,000
Receiver-General and his Office	3,000
Inspector-General and his Office	2,000
Executive Council	3,000
Board of Works	2,000
Emigrant Agent	700
Pensions	5,000
Contingent Expenses of Public Offices	3,300
Gross Total	<u>£75,000</u>

In 1847 the payments under schedule A, were: union act, £37,818; provincial act, £8,561 = £46,379; under schedule B, union act, £20,589; provincial act, £9,997 = £30,586. Total, £76,967.

The total military cost of the Canadas in the year 1847, for payment of troops and commissariat expenses was, *Regulars*, officers, 222; non-commissioned officers and men, 5,474; payment, £196,609. *Royal Artillery*, officers, 36; men, 627; payment, £21,721. *Royal Engineers*, officers, 26; no men; payment, £10,918. Commissariat expense of the whole, £37,433. The total payment, commissariat expenses of the Canadas for 5 years, ending 31st of March, 1847, was £1,726,213; of which sum £212,715 was commissariat. The British expenditure for the flotilla of the Royal navy employed on the lakes, was in 1847, £8,724; of which £4,904 consisted of wages to officers and seamen.

The estimates voted annually in the Imperial Parliament for Canada, consist of two items; the *first* is £11,578 for the clergy in North America. For this amount the faith of the British government is pledged to several religious bodies, viz.: to the clergy of the Church of England annually, £7,711; to the presbyterians in connexion with the Church of Scotland, £1,582; ditto, in connexion with that of Canada, £700; to the British Wesleyans, £700; and to the Roman catholic bishop and priests of that church, £1,500. *Second*, between £11,000 and £15,000 a year are voted annually for the North American Indians, in payment of their lands, as stated at page 138.

The expenditure of the whole province for 1848, was:—

Interest on Provincial Debt . . .	£166,014
Ditto on Turnpike Trusts . . .	3,172
Civil Government of Eastern and Western Canada . . .	33,804
Administration of Justice . . .	68,082
Provincial Penitentiary . . .	15,000
Legislature . . .	29,231
Education . . .	61,870
Agricultural Societies . . .	9,376
Hospitals and other Charities . . .	12,709
Public Works, exclusive of works out of guaranteed loan . . .	12,167
Militia . . .	1,847
Light-house maintenance . . .	4,828
Emigration and Quarantine . . .	752
Pensions . . .	10,846
Miscellaneous . . .	22,222
Indian Annuities . . .	6,655
Redemption of Public Debt . . .	15,000
Total . . .	£474,491

The expenditure of £29,231 for the legislature includes, salaries and contingencies, £20,921; printing the laws, £3,127; returning officers, £4,733. The sum of £10,846 for pensions, includes militia, £3,779; legislative, £544; judges, £2,058; schedule B (union act), £4,193. The miscellaneous £20,222 includes, rent and repairs, &c. to public buildings, £10,150; rent of bishop's palace, Quebec, £1,111; assessment on property at Quebec and Montreal, £1740; expense of the provincial penitentiary commission, £1,500, and other items.

The militia pensions include, 26 militia-men of Eastern Canada, at £13 10s. per annum, £351, disabled during the war; 96 militia-men of Western Canada, at £18, £1,728, disbanded during the rebellion; 11 widows of militia-men killed during the late war, £18 each, £198 = 90 widows and children of militia-men who died on service during the late rebellion, £18 each = £1,620.

The civil pensioners of the province in 1846 were in number, 60, and of varying sums from £900 down to £18 a year. The total civil and military pensions for 1846, amounted to £11,461.

FINANCIAL STATE OF CANADA.—It has been stated in the history of the province (see pages 35–36), that previous to the re-union of Western with Eastern Canada, the Upper or Western portion, had contracted a large public debt, in the making of canals, &c. In June, 1841, the total outstanding debt of Western Canada was stated to be £213,671 in currency, and £869,650 in sterling; the debt of Eastern Canada at the same period was £113,975 currency; total currency, £327,646, and sterling, £869,650, together in sterling, £1,335,720. Of these sums the debt in sterling, (£869,650) paid 6 per cent. interest in England; of the currency debt, £5,500 paid 8 per cent interest; £282,206, paid 6 per cent.; £73,910, paid 5 per cent.; and the remainder from 5¼ to 5½ per cent. per annum. At the period of the re-union of the provinces, in 1840–41, the British government guaranteed a loan for Canada of £1,500,000, to be employed in public works. Other loans have since been contracted, and the liabilities of Canada on the 31st of January, 1849, stood as follows in sterling money:—

	£	s.	d.
Imperial Guaranteed Loan . . .	1,500,000	0	0
Debentures, principal and interest, payable in London . . .	1,018,375	7	7
Ditto, payable in Canada . . .	530,729	10	10
Ditto, in small Debentures . . .	71,749	6	4
Unfunded Debt . . .	102,985	3	11
Balance at credit of the Consolidated Revenue Fund . . .	170,855	19	9
Redemption of Debt . . .	291,041	10	10
Special Funds managed by the Province . . .	418,021	8	3
Debentures issued by way of loan on security of specific taxes or mortgage . . .	133,315	10	4
Sinking Fund . . .	44,000	0	0
Total . . .	£4,281,074	6	10

Of this total of £4,281,074 sterling, £3,703,781 have been expended on various public works, which now yield a net revenue of £60,000 to £80,000 a year, and is annually increasing. The debentures, £133,315, have been loaned on ample security to the commissioners for erecting the Toronto Lunatic Society; to the Law Society at Toronto; and to the sufferers by the Quebec fire,—secured by mortgages on real property. The following is a detailed statement of the cost of these public works,

which are unequalled for their magnitude and utility, by those of any other possession of the British crown.

	£	s.	d.
St. Lawrence Canals ^a	1,412,314	1	8
Welland Canal	1,391,622	8	8
Chambly Canal ^b	86,409	7	10
Improvement of River Richelieu ^c }			
Lake St. Peter ^d	74,500	0	0
Burlington Bay Canal	48,376	13	7
Ottawa Works ^e	81,979	19	6
Harbours and Lighthouses ^f	266,504	17	10
Improvement of the Trent ^g	135,415	2	10
Roads and Bridges, Western Canada ^h	530,384	4	4
Ditto Eastern Canada ⁱ	268,326	11	1
Provincial Penitentiary ^b	34,207	15	1
Miscellaneous Works	31,507	11	2
Losses by Public Works and otherwise ^k	112,288	14	7

Halifax Currency £4,506,267 9 0

Sterling at 21s. 4d. £3,703,781 9 4

Explanatory Remarks.

^a These Canals are the Lachine, Beauharnois, Cornwall, and three smaller ones. "The works have been constructed," says Mr. Hincks, "in the most substantial manner, and they are unequalled on the American continent."

^b The Chambly Canal connects the St. Lawrence and Richelieu with Lake Champlain. Business is increasing rapidly through it.

^c This money has been expended in making a new channel through Lake St. Peter. There has been great difference of opinion as to the propriety of deepening the old channel or forming a new one, and the works are at present suspended.

^d The slides on the Ottawa have been of immense advantage to the lumber trade, and yield a fair return for the capital invested.

^e Tolls are charged on all the Government Harbours sufficient to meet the interest of the expenditure. Such works are of the utmost importance, affording, as they do, facilities for the export of the produce of the country. They are principally on the shores of Lakes Erie and Ontario.

^f The improvements on the Trent are principally slides to facilitate the operations of the lumberers in the county of Peterboro'.

^g These are macadamised or plank roads on which tolls are exacted, and toll bridges. They have been of the greatest advantage to the people; and though at first tolls were strongly objected to, the people now pay them most cheerfully, and are anxious for the continuation of such works.

^h This amount is very far short of the actual cost of the Penitentiary, the remainder having been defrayed out of the current revenue.

ⁱ This account is charged with various kinds of losses, and is in fact analogous to the profit and loss account of a merchant. It includes the amount lost by the failure of a house in London some years ago, (Thomas Wilson and Co., for £76,040) and losses by exchange and otherwise.

Up to the 1st of July, 1844, there has been expended on the improvements of the St. Lawrence, £325,576; including Beauharnois Canal, £162,281; Lachine Canal, £45,110; Cornwall Canal, to June, 1843, £57,110; Lake St. Peter, £32,893.

Lockage and Canals on the St. Lawrence.

	No. of locks.	Canal Miles.
The Gallopes	2	2
Point Iroquois	1	2½
Rapide Plat	2	4
Farren's Point	1	6½
Cornwall Canal	7	11½
Beauharnois	9	11½
	22	32½

The assets of the province consist of the public works which may fairly be valued at £4,000,000 sterling. The entire revenue from those works, after deducting £20,000 currency per annum, is permanently appropriated as a sinking fund, for the redemption of the debt incurred in their construction. £41,000 is also invested by the Bank of England in 3 per cent. consols, on account of the provincial sinking fund. Out of £170,855 balance at the credit of the consolidated revenue fund, Mr. Hincks states, "it is probable that £100,000 will be transferred to the account, *Redemption of the Debt*, this will make the amount at the credit of that account, about £391,000, to which must be added the sinking fund of £41,000 (in the 3 per cent. consols) showing a saving out of the annual revenue of £135,000 sterling, or upwards of half a million currency, since the union of the provinces." Canada, in fact, has done more than England, for it has provided a sinking fund for the ultimate redemption of its debt; and it has assets to show, and even to sell or mortgage, which would liquidate the debts incurred. Taking the whole debt of Canada at £1,500,000 currency, and the annual revenue at £600,000 currency, the debt of Canada does not exceed *seven and a half* years of its income. Taking the national debt of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland at £800,000,000, and the annual revenue at £60,000,000, the debt is equal to *thirteen and a half* years of the public income. Again, taking the debt of Canada at £1,500,000 currency, and the population at 1,500,000, the proportion of public debt due by each individual is *fifty-one shillings*; taking the debt of Great Britain and Ireland at £800,000,000, and the population at 28,000,000, the proportion of public debt due by each individual in the United Kingdom, is *five hundred and seventy-one shillings*. And it must be remarked, that while Canada has provided a sinking fund, which at compound interest would in a given period pay off her whole debt, England has no sinking fund, has no assets to

represent its debt, and has provided no means for the ultimate liquidation of her debt.

The population of Canada is increasing with wonderful rapidity; property is augmenting in value faster than population, for the waste lands of the province are every day being converted from useless areas, into productive fields; and blessed with internal peace, and protected against foreign aggression by its being a part of a great empire interested in its preservation, and zealous for its integrity and honour, Canada may look forward to the fulfilment of all its obligations, and to a high career of prosperity.

The debt and liabilities of Canada are thus stated in the "Blue Book" for 1846:—

In England—bearing interest at 5 per cent. by debentures, exclusive of the guaranteed loan, £1,068,375.

In Canada—viz.: in Upper Canada debentures, and debentures of Canada, £328,772.

By "Upper Canada" debentures, are understood those issued *before* the union of the provinces, in 1840–41, under acts of the Upper Canadian legislature. "Canada debentures" are those issued *since* the union, under acts of the united legislature.

Provincial Debentures of Lower Canada, vested in Trustees for Works (the interest

only being guaranteed by the province, and all paying except the first two):—Chambly Canal, £35,000; Turnpike Trusts, Quebec, £38,850 = £68,850 at 6 per cent., £4,130; Longueuil and Chambly Trust, £15,000; Montreal Harbour, £90,925; Turnpike Trusts, Montreal, £47,000 = £221,775 interest paid by commissioners.

Redemption of Public Debt—Being balance to meet rise or fall in exchange, £5,275.

New English Loan.—£1,363,000 sterling, interest at 4 per cent., £60,458 16s. 10 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.

The debt in England is all at 5 per cent. per annum; of the £328,772 due by Canada debentures, £144,910 bears interest at 5 per cent.; £175,112 at 6 per cent.; £5,000 at 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; and the remainder at rates varying from 2 to 6 per cent. according to the age of the debt.

Periods of redemption of the English loan (1,068,375): in 1854, £200,000 redeemable; in 1855, £400,000; in 1857, £224,150; in 1858, £45,500; in 1863, £77,725; in 1866, £121,000 = £1,068,375.

The Canadian loan of £328,772 is redeemable at different periods, from the year 1847 to 1874, in which last year £42,580 is payable.

BANKING INSTITUTIONS.—The sound state of the monetary institutions of the province will be seen from the following returns:—

Banking Returns, 31st January, 1849, compiled from the Returns laid before the Provincial Parliament.

Liabilities, Assets, &c.	Banque du Peuple.	Bank of Montreal.	Commercial Bank.	Bank of Upper Canada.	Quebec Bank.	City Bank.	Gore Bank.	Bank of B. N. America Cana- dian Branches.	Totals.
Liabilities:—	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Promissory Notes in circulation not bearing interest	32,144	249,286	157,049	149,610	44,911	116,001	66,353	185,834	1,001,188
Bills and Notes in circulation bearing interest	—	—	—	—	—	3,914	—	16,203	109,309
Balance due to other Banks	12,255	30,451	12,129	34,357	—	—	—	—	—
Cash Deposits not bearing interest	21,386	154,734	45,292	76,949	35,653	19,943	12,991	161,978	712,068
Cash Deposits bearing interest	23,372	67,880	27,663	11,068	16,800	18,092	18,167	—	—
Total average of Liabilities	89,157	502,351	242,233	271,974	97,364	157,950	97,511	361,015	1,822,565
Assets:—									
Coin and Bullion	10,339	155,049	52,396	27,355	15,904	20,614	13,538	84,294	379,489
Landed and other Property of the Bank	13,126	45,455	23,296	31,935	6,500	12,341	5,025	—	137,588
Government Securities	—	10,200	—	—	12,000	95,750	—	—	117,950
Promissory Notes or Bills of other Banks	3,447	20,581	11,019	13,082	658	13,557	7,945	20,857	91,446
Balances due from Banks and foreign agents	1,486	31,732	34,496	15,952	4,296	10,357	21,955	19,041	139,315
Notes and Bills discounted, or other debts due to the Bank not above included	263,022	1,096,996	558,573	564,459	166,417	304,186	169,093	854,917	3,977,663
Total average of Assets	291,420	1,360,030	679,690	652,783	205,775	457,305	217,546	979,109	4,843,151

Note.—The return under the head "Notes and Bills discounted," for the Gore Bank includes a claim of £40,000 on the estate of Reid, Irving, and Co., of London.—City Bank Bills of Exchange, £3,863.

The circulation per month of the Canadian banks, is about £1,300,000 to £1,500,000. The average circulation of the Bank of Montreal, is £500,000; City bank of Montreal, £230,000; Commercial bank, Midland District, £200,000; Bank of Upper Canada £200,000; Gore bank, £100,000; Quebec bank, £80,000; Banque du peuple, £85,000; Bank of British North America, branches, £250,000. All the banks issue notes as low as 5s. There is no provincial metallic currency; the amount of British coin in circulation cannot be ascertained; it is small in proportion to the entire circulating medium; the Canadians, like the Scotch, prefer their own bank notes to metal.

There are several Savings' Banks in Canada.

The Montreal Savings' Bank owes to depositors		£84,366
Montreal City and District	do. do.	44,560
The Quebec Provident and	do. do.	31,772
The Hamilton and Gore	do. do.	5,745
Total		£166,443

The *British America Fire and Life Assurance Company* has a subscribed capital stock of £100,000, of which £35,000 has been paid on 7,989 shares. The amount of property insured against fire during the year ending 31st of January, 1849, was £800,305. The premium received, £6,737; amount of losses paid during same period, £3,243; losses under adjudgment, 1,363; present liability under 1,170 policies, £727,189; insured against dangers of navigation, £173,166; premium received for the year, £3,326; losses paid, £2,258; losses under adjudgment, £1,000. The *St. Lawrence Inland Marine Assurance Company*, has a subscribed capital of £100,000, of which £15,000 is paid up. Property insured during 1848, £133,407; premium on ditto, £5,996; losses paid during the year, £3,009; losses under adjudgment, £900.

MONIES.—Accounts are kept in Halifax currency, by which a guinea (weighing 5 dwts. and 6 grs.) is equal to 24s. 4d. currency; a sovereign to 23s. 3d.; a Joannes (a gold coin, weighing 18 dwts.) to £1; a moidore (weighing 6 dwts. and 18 grs.) to £2; and an eagle (weighing 11 dwts. and 6 grs.) to 50s. The *gold*, Spanish, and French coins are—a doubloon (17 dwts.) £3 14s. 6d.; Louis-d'or, coined before 1793, (5 dwts. 4 grs.) £1 2s. 8d.; the pistole, ditto, (4 dwts. 4 grs.) 18s. 3d.; the forty-franc piece, coined since 1792, (8 dwts. 6 grs.) £1 16s. 2d.; the twenty-franc piece (4 dwts.

3 grs.) 18s. 1d. In *silver coins* the crown is equal to 5s. 6d.; Spanish and American dollar to 5s.; English shilling, 1s. 1d.; pistareen, 10d.; French crown, coined before 1793, 5s. 6d.; French piece of six francs, 5s. 6d.; five-franc piece, 1s. 8d.; American dollar, 5s.; and so on. The coins in most general circulation are dollars of various denominations.

Accounts kept in *£ s. d.* To change Halifax currency (4 dollars = £1 currency) into British sterling, deduct one-tenth. To change British sterling into Halifax currency, add one-ninth.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—English weights: viz., pound, troy, and avoirdupois. The standard wine gallon is the liquid measure of the province; the Canada minot for all grain, &c., except where specially agreed on to the contrary; the minot is an eighth larger than the Winchester bushel. The Paris foot for all measures of land granted previous to the conquest; the English for all since that era. The arpent is for all other measures English, unless it may be otherwise agreed on. For rough calculations, 100 acres superficial are equal to 100 arpents.

The acts 4 and 5 Vic. c. 88 and 89, passed for the inspection of flour and meal, and beef and pork, make the following provisions, viz:—

Meat.—Barrel of Pork (contents not less than 30, nor more than 31 gallons wine measure) to contain 200 lbs. of meat.

Tierce of ditto (45 to 46 gallons) 300 lbs.

Barrel of Beef (28 or 29 gallons) 200 lbs.

Tierce of ditto (41 or 45 gallons) 300 lbs.

And the barrels and tierces in proportion.

Flour.—A barrel, 196 lbs. net weight; Indian meal, 168; and oatmeal, 200 ditto.

Grain, Pulse, &c., purchased by weight, as follows:—wheat, per bushel, 60; Indian corn and rye, 56; barley, 48; oats, 34; pease, 60; beans, 50; clover and Timothy seeds 60; and grass seeds, 48 lbs.

AVERAGE PRICES OF VARIOUS PRODUCE.—

It is very difficult to give this correctly; the best result attainable is but an approximation, because prices depend materially on the English and New York quotations, and vary with every mail. The different seasons have an effect upon the markets, and also the means of transport to markets, as traffic is chiefly confined to the cities and towns. During winter a considerable rise takes place, in consequence of the consumption of the "lumber" men. In 1845, hay sold as high as from 27 to 30, and even 35 dollars a ton; oats, barley, and Indian corn proportionally.

In Montreal and Toronto provisions are

sold at a dear rate, but in the rural districts articles of food are comparatively cheap.

The following are the average prices in sterling money, for Western Canada, returned to her majesty's government for 1845:—

Wheat flour, per barrel of 196 lbs., 20s. to 25s.; wheat, per 60 lbs. bushel, 3s. 6d. to 5s.; oats, 1s. to 1s. 2d.; rye, 2s. to 2s. 9d.; and barley, 1s. 8d. to 3s. 3d. per bushel; wheat bread, loaf, of 4 lbs., 6d. to 7d.; potatoes, 1s. to 2s. per bushel; horned cattle, £5 to £15; horses £10 to £30; sheep, 10s. to 17s. 6d.; swine, 15s. to 25s.; turkeys, 2s. to 3s. 6d.; and geese, 1s. 3d. to 1s. 9d. each; ducks, 1s. 4d. to 2s. 3d.; fowls, 1s. to 1s. 9d. per couple; eggs, 5d. to 10d. per dozen; milk, 2d. per quart; butter, 6d. to 9d.; cheese (Canadian), 4½d. to 6d.; beef, 3d.; mutton, 2½d.; pork, 3½d.; coffee, 1s.; tea, 2s. 6d. to 5s., and sugar 4½d. to 7d. per lb.; salt, 10s. per 280 lbs.; wine (plain), 5s. to 16s.; brandy, 4s. 6d. to 4s. 9d.; and beer, 10d. to 1s. per gallon; tobacco, 7½d. to 1s. 2d. per lb.; hay, £35 to £40 per ton. All these are highest in winter, and are according to the city of Toronto market lists.

Wages for Labour.—Domestic, 15s. to 25s.; predial or agricultural (with board), 27s. to 50s., (without board), 50s. to 70s. per month; trades, 3s. 9d. to 6s. per day. The difference of prices and wages of labour in Quebec and Montreal with those of Toronto are small.

The timber trade is a large staple of Canada, and the following list of prices at Quebec may be useful:—

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
White pine, in the raft, according to quality and sizes, measured off	0	0	6	0	0	6½
Do., in shipping order, do.	0	0	6½	0	0	7
Red pine, in the raft, 32 to 37 feet average	0	0	8½	0	0	9½
Do., new do., 37 to 45 do.	0	0	9½	0	0	10½
Do., 40 feet average in shipping order	0	0	10	0	0	10½
Oak, Lake, in the raft	0	1	4	0	1	5
„ Rideau, do.	0	0	11	0	1	3
„ Inferior	0	0	7	0	0	9
Elm, according to average, in shipping order	0	0	8	0	0	10½
Ash	0	0	5½	0	0	7
Birch	0	0	9	0	1	0½
Tamarack and Hackmatac	0	0	4	0	0	6½
Staves, standard, per mille	40	0	0			
„ W. O. Pun.	12	10	0	13	0	0
„ Red oak, do.	7	10	0	8	0	0
„ Barrel	4	0	0	5	0	0
„ Ash	6	10	0	7	0	0
Pine deals, in the raft, floated,						
first	9	10	0	10	0	0
Do., do., seconds	5	10	0	6	10	0
Do., do., thirds	3	10	0	3	15	0
Do., Bright, 2-3rds for 2nds	10	0	0	11	0	0
Spruce deals, firsts	7	10	0			
Do., seconds	5	10	0	5	15	0
Do., thirds	3	15	0			
Handspikes, in the raft	0	4	9	0	6	0
Do., in small parcels	0	10	0			
Oars, according to specification, per pair	0	3	0	0	6	0

Note.—Parties in Britain will bear in mind, that when timber is sold in the raft, the charges for ship-

ping are from 7½ to 10 per cent.; and for dressing, allowance for culls, and butting, the expense at times is very great.

PROPERTY IN CANADA.—An estimate of the movable and immovable wealth of each colony, and of the property annually created therein, must necessarily afford an indication of their relative degree of importance and progress; but the almost impossibility of obtaining sufficient accurate information on the subject renders it exceedingly difficult to form even an approximate calculation.

Property annually created.—Nearly every male adult in Canada is a producer; the non-productive class, such as paupers, and the number of persons deriving their support from professions or from funded property, is comparatively very small. Taking the population of Eastern and Western Canada at 1,500,000, the value of the necessaries and luxuries required for their annual support cannot well be estimated at less than one shilling a-day, or £18 a-year for each individual,—equal to £27,000,000 per annum. If we estimate the amount of property annually produced and not consumed, but added to the movable or immovable property, at sixpence-halfpenny a day for each person, or about £10 per annum = £15,000,000, the total value of the property annually produced in Canada, according to this estimate, is £42,000,000. In round numbers it may be quoted at *fifty million sterling per annum.*

Movable and Immovable Property in Eastern and Western Canada.—There are in the united province five million acres of cultivated and improved land, which, if valued with their farm buildings, &c., at £10 per acre, give a landed property of £50,000,000; about ten million acres of occupied and assessed land, valued at £1 per acre = £10,000,000; and at least fifty million acres unoccupied, but fit for cultivation, at 5s. per acre = £12,500,000. One hundred thousand houses of all kinds, except shanties, at least £50 a house = £5,000,000; furniture, £20 for each house = £2,000,000; apparel and personal property, £5 each person = £7,500,000. Saw and grist mills, manufactories, distilleries, breweries, tanneries, factories, &c., about five thousand, at £200 each = £1,000,000. Timber to the value of at least one million sterling, may be cut annually for the next fifty years = £50,000,000. Horses, 250,000, at £10 each = £2,500,000. Oxen, milch cows,

and young cattle, 800,000, at £4 each = £3,200,000. Sheep, 1,300,000, about 20s. each = £1,300,000. Swine, 1,000,000, at 10s. = £500,000. Ships, steamers, boats, and barges, valued at £1,500,000. Merchandize, about £2,500,000. Capital invested in joint-stock banks and other public companies, £1,500,000. Capital represented by canals, wharfs, docks, and slides, about £6,000,000; roads and streets, £1,500,000; forts, barracks, military works, and government buildings, £2,000,000; churches, gaols, hospitals, nunneries, and public buildings, £2,000,000: the whole giving a grand total of about £117,500,000, as the estimate of the value of movable and immovable property in the province of Canada.

These statements indicate the progress which Canada has made; but it has been asserted that Canada and the other British possessions in North America have evinced little energy or marks of improvement, more particularly when compared with the United States. A writer in the *Quebec Gazette* has undertaken to refute this prevailing idea, and says, that "Facts and figures show that the progress of the North American Colonies of Great Britain, since 1783, when the United States were finally separated from the mother-country, has been nearly equal, all things considered, and, in some respects, superior to that of those States in all the principal points to which the political economist looks for the evidences of prosperity." He then proceeds to compare the progress from 1784 to 1836, in exports, imports, population, and shipping, thus:—

1784.	Impts.	Exports.	Pop.	Tons.
Nova Scotia, C. Bre- ton, and Prince Ed- ward's Island . . .	75000	3500	32000	12000
Canada	500000	150000	113000	95000
Newfoundland . . .	80000	70000	20000	20000
	655000	233500	155000	127000
1836.				
Nova Scotia	1245000	935000	150000	374000
Canada	2588000	1321750	1200000	348000
Newfoundland . . .	632576	850034	70000	98000
Cape Breton	80000	90000	35000	70000
Prince Edward Island	45000	90000	32500	23800
New Brunswick . . .	250000	700000	164000	347000
	5841586	3987078	1651500	1260800
UNITED STATES.				
1784	1250000	1000000	3000000	500000
1836	1620000	12100000	15000000	2000000

"Now, these figures (collected carefully from the sources of information mentioned underneath, and

• Holmes' American Annals; Lord Sheffield's Pamphlet on American Trade, 1789; Tench Coxe; Bristid's America; Anderson's commerce; Haliburton's Nova Scotia; Smith's Canada; M'Gregor's Colonies. Martin's

from others) show that the increase of the Shipping of the North American Colonies since 1784 has been nearly tenfold, while that of the United States has been only fourfold; that the population of these Colonies; 'the thews and sinews' of production and enterprise, has increased in the same period ten-fold, while that of the United States has only increased three-fold.

"Under the head of Imports, it is true that the United States have increased about forty-fold, and of Exports more than 120-fold—while we can only count an increase in the former of about nine, and in the latter of about seventeen times. But compare the range of Export and Import in the one case and the other. From 1784, to the present time, our neighbours have had the free range of the world, going and coming; while the Colonies, until comparatively a very recent period, were confined to the trade with the mother-country, and with the other Colonies; and even in the West India market they had to encounter the competition of the Americans, whose greater proximity and cheaper outfit gave them an advantage. Again, it is to be remembered, that in 1784, when the comparison begins, the Americans started in the world with double the population—four times the shipping, six times the import trade, and more than four times the export trade, than the Colonies then had; so that the ratio of increase was not only greater at the outset, but went on increasing by a kind of compound geometrical progression. And, lastly, there was, and is, this important difference and disadvantage to our North American Colonies, that their whole maritime coast line presented but three or four accessible ports suitable for commerce, and that Canada, the principal Colony, is winter-locked six months in the year; while the whole American coast, from Machias to New Orleans, broken and indented with multiplied bays, harbours, rivers, and inlets, is open at all seasons, studded long since with the populous seats of a busy commerce, which had planted itself as early as 1784 in at least ten of the principal positions it now holds.

"These calculations of colonial statistics are so far from being exaggerated, that they may rather be charged by some with being below the truth. It is also to be borne in mind, that in the amount of Colonial exports and imports given above, those of Upper Canada inland and lake trade are not included, the materials of information not being immediately accessible.

"That province, like New Brunswick, has in fact been created out of the wilderness since 1784, (excepting, always, a very small French Acadian population in remote corners of each province), and in no part of the British North American dominions has the expansive power of British enterprise been more remarkably shown than in these two junior provinces."

If the writer had carried his data down to 1848, he would have presented the British North American Colonies in a still more favourable comparative view. Western Canada doubles its population in about 10 years; the United States in 25 years.

Colonial Dictionary; Bliss, Atkinson, and Haliburton's pamphlets on the North American Colonies; Colonial Population Returns.

The British North American colonies are most favourably situated between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, possess fisheries, mines, forests, and arable land of almost incalculable value, an extent of continuous navigable waters such as no other country enjoys, and every element conducive to the promotion of individual wealth and happiness. These provinces do not yet contain a population of much more than two million; they could maintain with ease fifty million inhabitants; and at the present rate of increase of cent. per cent. every decade, that number would be attained in less than 50 years.

SUMMARY.—I may perhaps be excused recapitulating some of the leading facts in the history of Canada which well deserve serious consideration, especially at the present critical period in colonial policy.

Since the conquest of Canada from the French in 1759, England has regarded with careful solicitude the affairs of that country: her ablest men have been selected as its governors; civil and religious liberty has been fully conferred upon the Canadians, to whom land has been granted by the Crown with unbounded liberality; the funds of the British exchequer have been spent without stint in the construction of canals, roads, forts, and public works; and the unparalleled naval and military power of England employed in preserving the colonists from hostile incursions. For more than 50 years a monopoly was given to the Canadians for the sale of their timber in the markets of the United Kingdom, and for the vending of their "lumber," fish, and food, in the British West Indian colonies.

The result of this policy, which may without exaggeration be termed maternal, has been a rapid augmentation of individual and of provincial wealth; and an enormous increase of population, accompanied by a more than proportionate augmentation of the necessities and even luxuries of life. Now, having received from Britain all that a helpless child needs from a kind parent, it is for the Canadians themselves to declare whether they will remain part and parcel of the glorious empire which nurtured their infancy, fostered their more matured growth, and made them participants in every privilege which England so happily possesses. Or misled by demagogues, intoxicated by false doctrines, ungrateful for past benefits, and unmindful of present good, whether they

will repudiate the connection from which they have received such substantial advantages. The separation would be comparatively of little importance to England: she rose triumphant in power after the far greater privation consequent on the declaration of independence of the United American Colonies in 1776; and, under Divine Providence, there was added to her dominions in the *East* a larger and more useful territory than she had lost in the *West*. The annexation of Canada to the United States republic, would but hasten the period when that, like all other extensive *Continental* governments, must, under the operation of disintegrating principles, separate into independent states—a disunion which the experience of every age shews would probably be soon followed by rivalry and hostility.

It would, also, be well for those who favour the idea of separation to "*count the cost*," since, without violating the first principles of justice and common honesty, no declaration of independence could be made on the part of the Canadians without involving the creation of a Canadian debt to reimburse the people of England for the large sums which have been expended from the Home Exchequer in and for Canada. In the ordinary course of private life, what man would be justified in repudiating when it suited his convenience or caprice a connection formed when he was struggling for existence, from which he had derived all the advantage, and of which the burthens had been borne by his colleague.

It is, however, very probable that the opinions concerning the expediency of separation which have been lately promulgated originate in the factious agitation of a few interested or unreflecting individuals, and do not express the deliberate conviction of any considerable portion of either the English or French Canadians.

But let the present clamour arise from what source it may, its injurious effects are beyond dispute: and it is impossible to close the subject without reiterating the hope that the loyalty, good sense, and appreciation of their true interests, which the Canadians have heretofore evinced, may be speedily exerted to extinguish the mischievous theories and idle speculations which are fraught with so much practical evil to Canada, by impeding commerce, preventing the flow of capital and emigration, and diverting the stream from the country which it would fertilize and adorn.

BOOK II.—NOVA SCOTIA.

CHAPTER I.—GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION AND HISTORY.

THE province of Nova Scotia is an extensive peninsula, connected with the continent of North America by an isthmus only 8 miles wide. It is situated between $43^{\circ} 25'$ and 46° N. lat., and 61° and $66^{\circ} 30'$ W. long. On the N.E. and N. it is bounded by the Bays of Fundy and Chignecto, the boundary line which separates it from the county of Westmoreland in New Brunswick, Bay Verte, and the Northumberland Strait, which divides it from Prince Edward's Island; on the E. by the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Gut of Canso, which separates it from Cape Breton Island; and on the S. and W. by the Atlantic Ocean. Its extreme length from E. to W. is stated by Bouchette at 383 English miles, but this is evidently a typographical error, as it cannot exceed 300, and was probably calculated by him at 283. Its breadth varies greatly; between Chester and Black Rock Pier it being about 50 miles, and between Bristol Bay and the head of Bay Verte 104. The area is stated by Haliburton at 15,617 square miles, or 9,994,880 acres.

HISTORY.—Nova Scotia was probably first visited by the Cabots in their voyage of discovery in 1497, but the earliest authentic account we possess concerning its colonization is of the attempt of the Marquis de la Roche, who, by order of Henry IV., sailed from France in 1598, with a number of convicts, forty of whom he landed on the small and barren island of Sable, situate about fifty leagues to the S.E. of Cape Breton, about ten leagues in circumference, interspersed with sand-hills and fresh-water ponds; without any port, and producing nothing but briars.

After cruising some time on the coast of Nova Scotia, the Marquis was compelled by stress of weather to return to France, leaving on Sable Isle the forty unfortunate convicts who had been landed there. Seven years after, twelve only were found alive, in a most wretched and emaciated state, by

Chetodol, the pilot of the Marquis de la Roche, whom the French king sent to bring them back to France.

Acadia was the name given to Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and part of the State of Maine by the French, and the most vigorous essay on their part for its settlement was made in 1604 by a private gentleman, named De Monts, who obtained from Henry IV. the dominion of the colony and the monopoly of the fur trade throughout its whole extent. An account of his expedition has already been given in the history of Canada. The little colony formed at Port Royal, now Annapolis, was taken possession of in 1614 by the English governor and colonists of Virginia, who claimed the country by right of the discovery of Sebastian Cabot, and considered the French colonists of De Monts as encroachers or intruders on the charter granted to the Plymouth Company, in 1606, which extended to 45° of N. lat.; the right of occupancy being then considered invalid, and the doctrine admitted that in the first instance

“All a man sailed by or saw was his own.”

Eight years elapsed after the destruction of the French settlements in Port Royal and other parts of Acadia before the English began to think of establishing themselves on the peninsula. In 1621 Sir William Alexander applied for and obtained from James I. a grant of the extensive country, lying on the E. side of a line drawn in a northern direction from the river St. Croix to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, which was named in the patent *Nova Scotia*.

About a year after the sealing of this grant, Sir William Alexander despatched a number of emigrants to take possession of the country, who, after wintering at Newfoundland, arrived in the spring of 1623 at Nova Scotia, which they found occupied by the survivors of the French settlers who had remained after the destruction of Port

Royal, to whom were added emigrants from the St. Lawrence and France; under these circumstances the adventurers thought it prudent to return to England, where they published most flattering reports of the beauty, fertility, and salubrity of the region they had so unsuccessfully visited. In 1625 Charles I. confirmed his father's grant to Sir William Alexander, and created the order of Knights Baronets of Nova Scotia, whose members were to contribute their aid to the settlement. Their number was not to exceed 150; they were each to hold jurisdiction over a tract extending three miles along the coast, and ten towards the interior, and to receive in full property 16,000 acres of land. In return, each was bound to fit out six men for the colony, or to pay 2,000 merks. Pre-eminence was to be given them over all knights called *equites aurati*, but none of them were to be baronets of Nova Scotia, or of Scotland, till they had fulfilled the conditions prescribed by his majesty, and obtained a certificate of performance from the governor of the colony. The patents were ratified in parliament.

On the war breaking out between England and France, efforts were made by Sir William Alexander and his friends to drive the French from Nova Scotia, and in 1628, a squadron under Kirtek, the famous French refugee, reduced the forts of Port Royal, St. Croix, and Pentagort; but the French settlement of Cape Sable still held out, nor did the English obtain complete possession of the country. Sir William at length, wearied by the unsatisfactory results of his endeavours, and the heavy expenses attendant on them, conveyed a large section of his territory to Claude de la Tour, a French protestant, who, having been taken prisoner by Kirtek, and sent to England, had been there induced to second Sir William's views by introducing a party of Scotch emigrants into Cape Sable; in this attempt and other subsequent ones he was unsuccessful, in consequence of the determined opposition of his son, who held the fort during his absence. In 1632 Charles I. surrendered Nova Scotia (as before mentioned) to Louis XIII., who immediately took possession of it. At the close of the civil war in England, Oliver Cromwell, who contributed so much to raise the glory of the British name, sent out Major Sedgewick with an armed force, and Nova Scotia again fell into the possession of the English. Only Port Royal, however, was retained by Sedgewick's troops; and

French settlers were suffered to establish themselves in different parts of the country. The son and heir of Claude de la Tour made his submission to the English, and in conjunction with Thomas (afterwards Sir Thomas) Temple and William Crowne, petitioned Cromwell for a grant of the principal part of what now composes Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, in right of the transfer made by Sir William Alexander. This suit was successful. William Crowne Temple purchased La Tour's share, re-established the different settlements, and expended £16,000 in repairing the fortifications; but when the colony was emerging from distress and obscurity, it was ceded to France by the treaty of Breda in 1667.

For the following 20 years the colony enjoyed repose, and some progress was made in establishing fisheries, and extending the fur trade, but upon the renewal of hostilities in 1689, it was still deficient in means of defence, and Port Royal was easily taken by Sir William Phipps, with a squadron from Massachusetts. Phipps, after dismantling the fortress, and burning some other places, quitted the colony, without leaving any garrison behind him. The French, of course, resumed the government, although the English retained a nominal possession, sometimes fighting for a district, at others ravaging the French settlements; until, by the treaty of Ryswick in 1697, the colony was once more restored to, or rather left unmolested under the dominion of France. This peaceful state of things was soon disturbed by the war of the Spanish succession in 1702, and preparations were made for the total subjugation of Nova Scotia to the British arms, with a distinct assurance on the part of the crown, that if again conquered it should not be restored to France.

The first expedition, which consisted of 550 men, was despatched under colonel Church, and 3 years afterwards a force of 1,000 soldiers was sent to complete the conquest of the country; but the ability and energy of Subercase, the French commander, obliged the assailants *twice* to rise the siege of Port Royal with considerable loss.

The New Englanders instead of being disheartened, seem rather to have been stimulated by these failures to more vigorous exertion. After two years of strenuous effort, with the aid of the British government, an armament sailed from Boston Bay

on the 18th September, 1710, under the command of general Nicholson, and arrived at Port Royal on the 24th. Subercase having a garrison of only 260 men, surrendered after a short siege, and obtained an honourable capitulation, which was signed on the 2nd October, and is memorable as the commencement of the permanent annexation of Nova Scotia to the British Crown. In compliance with the terms of this deed, the French troops and governor were removed from the colony; the name of Port Royal was changed to Annapolis in honour of Queen Anne, colonel Vetch was appointed governor, and a council formed of the principal inhabitants, for the management of the civil affairs of the province. The French court became sensible of the extent of their loss, and anxious to re-conquer Port Royal; but the state of affairs in Europe prevented their sending any considerable expedition for that purpose. Offers were made on the part of the king of France, to the merchants of Rochelle, and promises of profit and reward held out, on condition of their forming an association sufficiently powerful to drive the English from the country; similar applications were ineffectually made to the most opulent traders at St. Malo, Nantes, and Bayonne, but no one appeared willing to take charge of the expedition, or to incur the heavy expenses it would necessitate. Vaudreuil, the governor of Canada, was urged to attempt the recovery of Port Royal; but, although fully sensible of its importance, he was deterred by the threatened invasion of his own country. He appointed Baron Castine to the chief command in Nova Scotia, with instructions to foster the hostile feelings of the French settlers towards the English; and he wrote to the priests, urging them to redouble their zeal in retaining the affections of their Indian proselytes. His instructions were fully carried out, and resulted in the renewal of hostilities, in the midst of which peace was concluded between France and England, on the 11th April, 1713.

By the 12th article of this treaty, known as the peace of Utrecht, all Nova Scotia, with its ancient boundaries, as also the city of Port Royal, and the inhabitants of the same, were ceded to Great Britain, "in such ample manner and form, that the subjects of the most Christian king shall be hereafter excluded from all kinds of fishing in the said seas, bays, and other places on the coast of Nova Scotia, that is to say, on

those which lie towards the E., within 30 leagues, beginning from the island commonly called Sable, inclusively, and thence stretching along towards the S.W."

In 1714 general Nicholson arrived as governor, and proposed to the Acadians either to become subjects of the crown of Great Britain, and retain their possessions, with the free enjoyment of their religion as far as was compatible with the laws of England, or to leave the country within a year. The people showed themselves equally reluctant to accept either alternative: the governor having orders not to use harsh measures towards them, knew not how to act, and the prescribed time having elapsed, they were suffered to remain, although they constantly refused to take the oath of allegiance. In 1719 colonel Phillips succeeded to the governorship, and, at length, a large proportion were with difficulty prevailed upon to take the oath. Although no express reservation was made in it, exempting them from bearing arms against the French, yet, there is reason to believe that a promise of not being required to do so was given them, and they were consequently known among the other colonies as the neutral French.

The male population capable of bearing arms, amounted at this period to about 1,000 men; of these from 1,200 to 1,300 were settled in the capital and its neighbourhood, and the rest were dispersed on the several rivers of the province. Neither rents nor taxes were exacted from them, and they were allowed to continue their trade with France and her dependencies. Meanwhile, the Indians, on being informed that they and their lands had been transferred from the French to the English crown, appealed to Vaudreuil, who informed them, that no mention was made either of them or their lands in the treaty of Utrecht, and, although there could be no doubt as to the real meaning of both parties in forming that treaty, he, nevertheless, affected to consider the Indians as an independent people, and maintained among them an interest separate from the English, who vainly endeavoured to keep on friendly terms with them. In 1720 a numerous party of Indians plundered a large fishing establishment, which had been erected by the English at Canseau, and was much frequented during the summer by traders from Massachusetts, carrying off fish and merchandise to the value of £20,000; and

in 1723 they captured at the same place, 17 sail of fishing vessels, with numerous prisoners, 9 of whom they put to death with deliberate cruelty: 7 of these vessels were afterwards retaken with 15 captives, and 1,500 quintals of fish, but not without a severe contest with the Indians, who lost about 30 men on board the several prizes. They shortly afterwards attacked the garrison at Annapolis, burned 2 houses near the fort, killed and scalped a sergeant and a private, and took several prisoners.

The Indians of the western portion of Nova Scotia were a part of the great Abenaki nation, and the whole of these people acknowledged the Baron Castine, a son of the old baron (named in the history of Canada p. 6), by an Indian woman, as their chief sachem or leader. Previous to the affray at Annapolis, Castine had been captured and imprisoned at Boston, but had been released, partly from a dread of exasperating the Indians beyond all hope of reconciliation, and partly from a difficulty of considering him a traitor who had never acknowledged himself a subject. The continued hostilities of the Indians at length obliged the English colonists to solicit the aid of Massachusetts, from whence an expedition, consisting of about 200 men, was sent in 1724 against Norridgewoack, the chief Indian fort on the Kennebec, where they surprised the enemy, defeated them with great slaughter, and put to death le Pere Rallé, a catholic missionary, who had lived among them 40 years. Judge Haliburton, the talented historian of his native land, gives a most interesting account of Rallé, whose death is stated by Charlevoix to have been accompanied by circumstances of extreme cruelty, whereas Hutchinson declares he was killed by the English in self-defence, when firing upon them, and refusing either to give or take quarter. Castine, who had previously gone to France to take possession of his paternal estate, determined on not returning to the country, and as the destruction of Norridgewoack was followed by decided measures, the savages were for a time overawed.

In 1744 war recommenced between France and England. De Quesnal, governor of Cape Breton, immediately fitted out expeditions, which took Canseau, and twice laid siege ineffectually to Annapolis. De Quesnal was tempted to these proceedings by his knowledge of the unprepared state of the English garrisons, but he acted in dis-

obedience to his instructions, the French government having desired him not to attempt the capture of any post in Nova Scotia until further orders; under the well-grounded apprehension that, as Louisburg was also insufficiently garrisoned, the English colonists might retaliate by attempting the reduction of that important place, which being well situated for fishing, had been fortified by the French at an expense of £1,200,000, with a view to make it the bulwark of their possessions in North America. It was surrounded by a stone wall two miles and a half in circuit, and by a ditch 80 feet wide. Shirley, governor of New England, proposed to attack it, and preparations were made with great energy for the dangerous enterprise, the enthusiasm of the troops (consisting solely of militia and volunteers) being increased by the preaching of Mr. Whitfield, the famous dissenting minister, who furnished a motto, while a chaplain carried on his shoulder a hatchet to demolish images. Massachusetts contributed 3,200 men, Connecticut 500, and New Hampshire 300, who embarked in a number of small vessels, and arrived in April, 1745, at Canseau. Here they were joined by commodore Warren with the fleet from the West India station, and on the 30th April they came in view of Louisburg, and being wholly unexpected, succeeded in easily effecting a landing. Their worst labour was in getting their cannon on shore, and for a fortnight they sustained the toil and danger of drawing it through a morass, where they were up to their knees in mud, and exposed to the enemy's fire. The batteries were not completed until the end of May, and the place was so strong that the besiegers were five times repulsed, and might eventually have been compelled to raise the siege, but for the capture of the *Vigilant*, a line-of-battle ship containing 560 men and supplies, upon which Duchambon the governor, whose works were considerably damaged, and his garrison disposed to mutiny, capitulated on the 18th June.

The reduction of the island of St. John (now Prince Edward), soon followed, and by hoisting the French flag on the captured forts, two East Indiamen and a South Sea ship, whose cargoes were valued at £600,000, were decoyed into them. The news of these events created a powerful effect on the conduct of both the English and French governments. The French were greatly alarmed, and determined to seek

without delay the recovery of Cape Breton, and the conquest of Nova Scotia. They accordingly fitted out a squadron composed of 70 sail, of which 11 were ships of the line, 20 frigates, 5 ships and bombs, and the rest tenders and transports, having on board 3,150 disciplined troops. The fleet sailed from Brest early in the summer of 1746, under the command of the Duke D'Anville, an officer of great ability and experience, and passed unnoticed a squadron under admiral Martin, which had been dispatched by the English to watch its motions.

Admiral Listocq left Portsmouth in pursuit of it, but was several times driven back by contrary winds; and being compelled to abandon all hopes of overtaking the French armament, the colonies were left to their own defences. The good fortune of the duke, however, did not continue—his passage was perilous and protracted beyond example, and on reaching Chebucto (now Halifax) 4 ships of the line were so shattered as to be obliged to return to Europe, while 3 sent under admiral Conflans to the West Indies, had touched at the point of rendezvous; but not finding the fleet, had also set sail homewards. D'Anville, cruelly mortified by these disappointments, died suddenly on the fourth day after his arrival. In the afternoon of the same day vice-admiral Distournelle, with 3 or 4 ships of the line, rejoined the squadron, and, in a council of war, proposed returning to France, but was strenuously opposed by Monsieur de la Jonquière, governor of Canada, who maintained that their condition fully justified them in making an attempt upon Annapolis, and his opinion was maintained by the majority.

The vice-admiral was thrown, by harass and anxiety, into a fever; and becoming delirious, he imagined himself a prisoner, and ran himself through the body. La Jonquière assumed the command, and proceeded against Annapolis. In rounding Cape Sable they encountered a fearful storm, by which they were so much dispersed and weakened that they turned back and steered for Europe. The complete failure of this mighty armament was looked upon by the English colonists as a special interposition of Providence, and celebrated by a general thanksgiving. Still the French persevered. De la Jonquière, having returned to France with the remnant of the Duke D'Anville's fleet, was immediately sent to Nova Scotia with 38 sail; but the English admirals Anson

and Warren having started in pursuit of them, a well contested battle took place on the 3rd of May, 1747, which ended in a complete victory on the part of the English, who captured a French man-of-war, 1,000 or 5,000 prisoners, and 6 richly laden Indiamen, which were under the convoy of the French fleet.

By the treaty of Aix la Chapelle in 1748, peace was concluded between France and England; and the English colonists, by the articles of this peace, were compelled to surrender Cape Breton and Louisburg, which they had obtained with so much skill and bravery, the British ministry having consented to restore them to France on condition of the Low Countries being yielded to their ally, the empress-queen of Hungary, to maintain the balance of power in Europe. Meanwhile Britain had become aware of the importance of Nova Scotia; and the peace having left a great many military out of employment, the idea was formed of settling the disbanded troops in this part of America. This project was warmly taken up by the Earl of Halifax, then President of the Board of Trade and Plantations. Fifty acres were apportioned to every private, with 10 additional for each member of his family; a higher allowance was granted to officers in proportion to their rank, till it amounted to 600 for all above the rank of captain. Land was also offered to civil settlers according to their means, with the advantage of being conveyed with their families to the colony, maintained there one year after their arrival, supplied with arms and ammunition for their defence, and with the necessary materials for clearing their land, erecting houses, and prosecuting the fishery, all at the expense of the British government. Thus encouraged, 3,760 adventurers embarked with their families, in May, 1749, and landed at Chebucto harbour, under the command of the honourable Edward Cornwallis, who had been appointed governor, and whose energy and perseverance contributed greatly to the speedy establishment of the town of Halifax.

The Imperial Parliament continued to support the colony by annual grants, which in 1755 amounted to £415,584 (see Haliburton, p. 112).

In spite of their numerous advantages and military habits, the English suffered greatly from the desultory warfare carried on against them by the Indians, who, though they at first made some friendly overtures

were soon induced by their old allies, to renew a system of avowed hostility. Disputes with the French concerning the boundary line, formed another fruitful source of annoyance, the French government taking advantage of an ambiguity in the wording of the treaties of cession, and contending that the British dominion extended only over the peninsula separated from the continent, by the Bays of Fundy and Chignecto; while the English maintained that their limits reached from the St. Croix to the St. Lawrence, and consequently included the fine country now called New Brunswick. The French settlers under the name of neutrals proved themselves deserving of a very different appellation, and instigated by the crafty and inexcusable policy pursued by the French court, they, aided by the Indians, kept the British in constant alarm, till, in April, 1755, the war recommenced by admiral Boscawen's capturing several French vessels on the coast of Newfoundland. Two months after lieutenant-colonel Monckton, at the head of a force which had been rapidly formed in New York, invested a fort named Beau Sejour, recently erected by the French on the narrow isthmus which connects Nova Scotia with New Brunswick, and after four days' bombardment, obliged it to surrender. The following day Monckton attacked and reduced another stronghold, situated upon the river Gaspereaux, which runs into Bay Vert, and took possession of a large quantity of provisions and stores of all kinds which he found there. Meanwhile captain Rowe, with his ships, sailed to the mouth of the river St. John, but they found the French had abandoned their post after destroying, as far as they had time, all the fortifications they had lately raised. The success of this expedition was so decided as to secure the temporary cessation of hostilities, but the local government were at a loss to know what course to pursue with regard to the Acadians, as the French settlers were called, whose numbers amounted to 17,000 or 18,000, and who, there was reason to fear, would assist the French, should they attempt the invasion of the colony. The course of action the authorities at length decided upon cannot be justified even by the extremely difficult position in which they were placed. They assembled the Acadians in their respective settlements, under the pretence of making some communications relative to their welfare, and then, without previous notice, forced them on board several vessels

provided for the purpose, and dispersed them through New England, New York, and Virginia. The details of these arbitrary proceedings are fully given by Judge Haliburton in his *History of Nova Scotia*, and fully and feelingly commented upon; but it is not necessary here to enter into the particulars of this painful subject. Suffice it to quote Haliburton's concluding sentence. "If the Acadians had to lament that they were condemned unheard, that their accusers were also their judges, and that their sentence was disproportioned to their offence; they had also much reason to attribute their misfortunes to the intrigues of their countrymen in Canada, who seduced them from their allegiance to a government which was disposed to extend to them its protection and regard, and instigated them to a rebellion, which it was easy to foresee would end in their ruin." Many of these expelled and deported settlers, however, returned after the peace of 1763, and established themselves in and about the townships of Clare, Yarmouth, and Argyle, where their descendants now form a large industrious and useful part of the population.

In 1758 a constitution was granted to Nova Scotia, consisting of a House of Assembly, a Legislative Council, and a governor representing the British crown; and numerous New England immigrants settled on the vacant lands of the unfortunate Acadians. The capture of Louisburg, in Cape Breton, from the French, in 1758, gave additional security to the colony, which now began to improve.

In 1761, the Indians for the first time entered into a formal treaty, to "bury the hatchet," and accept George III., instead of the king formerly owned by them, as their Great Father and friend. On the accession of George IV. to the crown of Great Britain, and the consequent election of a new House of Assembly, the number of representatives was increased to 24, namely 2 for each of the counties of Halifax, Lunenburg, Annapolis, and King's, 4 for Halifax township, and 2 for each of the townships of Lunenburg, Annapolis, Horton, Cornwallis, Falmouth, and Liverpool. By the treaty of Paris in 1762, France resigned all claims to any of her former possessions in this part of the North American continent. In this year the township of Londonderry was settled by Irish emigrants, and that of Horton by New Englanders.

In 1784 New Brunswick and Cape Breton

were separated into two distinct governments, but the latter was subsequently (in 1819) united to Nova Scotia. Its history and description will be given in a separate chapter.

In 1787 his majesty erected the province of Nova Scotia into a bishop's see, and appointed Charles English the first bishop. The arrival in the colony on the 29th of October, 1787, of his royal highness Prince William Henry (subsequently King William IV.), gave occasion for much rejoicing. In 1798 a dreadful storm and gale of wind at Halifax, destroyed shipping, wharfs, and other property, of the value of £100,000. On the 18th May, 1799, the appointment of his royal highness the Duke of Kent as commander-in-chief of the British forces in British North America was announced, and on the 12th September, the province voted an address to his royal highness, who on the 5th February, 1801, in a public despatch, urged the formation of a road between Halifax and Quebec. From this period to 1839 there were no leading events worthy of record. The colonists distinguished themselves by loyalty and industry; during the American war they raised a militia for their own defence, and during the French revolutionary war they cheerfully contributed their mite towards enabling England to subdue the anarchists of France.

Mr. Murdoch remarks in his *Life of Lord Sydenham* (p. 174), that "in Nova Scotia, as in Upper Canada, the population had gradually outgrown the monopoly of power in the hands of a few large families, which seems to be the almost necessary condition of colonies in their infant state. There, as in Upper Canada, the popular branch of the legislature chafing against the passive resistance of the executive, had addressed the crown in language which, under a better system, would probably never have been heard. They had asked for the removal of their governor, and had not obscurely hinted at the stoppage of supplies." On the arrival of the Earl of Durham in Canada as her majesty's high commissioner and governor-general in 1838, a deputation, consisting of Mr. Johnston, solicitor-general, Mr. Uniacke, a member of the Executive Council, Mr. Young, member of the House of Assembly, and Mr. Almon, banker and merchant, were sent from Halifax to Quebec by the then lieutenant-governor, Sir Colin Campbell, to confer with the Earl of Durham on the affairs of the colony.

These deputies, in conjunction with their

colleagues from New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, expressed in an address to Lord Durham, dated Quebec, 22nd September, 1838, their gratification at the warm interest which the governor-general took in the welfare of the colony which they represented, and their admiration of the enlightened and comprehensive views of his lordship. The Earl of Durham, in his despatch to Lord Glenelg, of 13th September, 1838, stated his belief that the deputies from Halifax and Prince Edward Island, were all "impressed with the necessity of a general union of the provinces, as the most likely measure to preserve their connexion with the British crown;" and as her majesty's high commissioner, his lordship stated in his report to the queen, that he knew "of but one difficulty in the way of such an union, and that arises from the disinclination which some of the lower provinces might feel to the transference of powers from their present legislatures to that of the union;"—an objection which he supposed would arise principally from the local legislatures not liking to give up the immediate control which they possessed over their respective colonial revenues. The proposition was supported in 1814 by the late Duke of Kent—(see *History of Canada*, p. 32).—was under the consideration of the Earl of Durham in 1838, and is now a prominent topic of discussion in British America. An association of delegates, calling itself the "British-American League," has been holding meetings at Kingston, in Western Canada, and after sitting as a convention for six days, it issued, on 31st July, 1849, a long address to all the subjects of the British crown in North America. In this address there is no discussion respecting separation from Britain; the convention, consisting of a president, six vice-presidents, two secretaries, a treasurer, and an executive committee of ten, direct all the attention of their "fellow-countrymen" to three points, viz.: "a union of all the British-American provinces;" "retrenchment and economy in the public expenditure;" and "a protection to home industry." It is declared in the "address," that by a federal union of Nova Scotia and the other North American colonies with Canada, the foundations would be laid for "making the country a great nation on a solid and enduring basis. Impressed with the weight of such a measure, but uncertain as to the sentiments of the sister colonies, this convention has pro-

posed a conference with those provinces by a delegation of some of its members. Meanwhile it recommends this great question to mature deliberation. The American correspondent of the *London Times* observes, (16th August, 1849) on this subject,—“An union of all the North American provinces has been much talked of, but as this would place the French party in a minority, it would of course, meet every opposition from them.”

The topic is now under consideration in Nova Scotia. It is not within the scope of this work to express any party view of the advantages or disadvantages which might or might not result from such a contemplated union. The Earl of Durham, in his report to the queen, on 31st of January, 1839, expresses fully his opinions on the matter; and as it is one deserving of great consideration, not only by *all* the North American Colonies, but also by the Imperial Parliament, by her majesty's government, by merchants, and other persons having commercial, pecuniary, or personal relations with British America, I give the following interesting and comprehensive view of the question from the report of his lordship:

“While I convince myself that such desirable ends would be secured by the legislative union of the two provinces (Eastern and Western, or Upper and Lower Canada), I am inclined to go further, and inquire whether all these objects would not more surely be attained, by extending this legislative union over all the British provinces in North America; and whether the advantages which I anticipate for two of them, might not, and should not in justice be extended over all. Such an union would at once decisively settle the question of races; it would enable all the provinces to co-operate for all common purposes; and, above all, it would form a great and powerful people, possessing the means of securing good and responsible government for itself, and which, under the protection of the British empire, might in some measure counterbalance the preponderant and increasing influence of the United States on the American continent. I do not anticipate that a colonial legislature thus strong and self-governing, would desire to abandon the connection with Great Britain. On the contrary, I believe that the practical relief from undue interference, which would be the result of such a change, would strengthen the present bond of feelings and interests; and that the connection would only become more durable and advantageous, by having more of equality, of freedom, and of local independence. But at any rate, our first duty is to secure the well-being of our colonial countrymen; and if in the hidden decrees of that wisdom by which this world is ruled, it is written, that these countries are not for ever to remain portions of the empire, we owe it to our honour to take good care, that, when they separate from us, they should not be the only countries on the American continent in which the Anglo-Saxon race shall be found unfit to govern itself.

“I am in truth, so far from believing that the increased power and weight that would be given to these colonies by union would endanger their connection with the empire, that I look to it as the only means of fostering such a national feeling throughout them as would effectually counterbalance whatever tendencies may now exist towards separation. No large community of free and intelligent men will long feel contented with a political system which places them, because it places their country in a position of inferiority to their neighbours. The colonist of Great Britain is linked, it is true, to a mighty empire; and the glories of its history, the visible signs of its present power, and the civilization of its people, are calculated to raise and gratify his national pride. But he feels, also, that his link to that empire is one of remote dependence; he catches but passing and inadequate glimpses of its power and prosperity; he knows that in its government he and his own countrymen have no voice. While his neighbour on the other side of the frontier assumes importance from the notion that his vote exercises some influence on the councils, and that he himself has some share in the onward progress of a mighty nation, the colonist feels the deadening influence of the narrow and subordinate community to which he belongs. In his own and in the surrounding colonies, he finds petty objects occupying petty, stationary, and divided societies; and it is only when the chances of an uncertain and tardy communication bring intelligence of what has passed a month before on the other side of the Atlantic that he is reminded of the empire with which he is connected. But the influence of the United States surrounds him on every side, and is for ever present. It extends itself as population augments and intercourse increases; it penetrates every portion of the continent into which the restless spirit of American speculation impels the settler or the trader; it is felt in all the transactions of commerce, from the important operations of the monetary system down to the minor details of ordinary traffic; it stamps, on all the habits and opinions of the surrounding countries, the common characteristics of the thoughts, feelings, and customs of the American people. Such is necessarily the influence which a great nation exercises on the small communities which surround it. Its thoughts and manners subjugate them, even when nominally independent of its authority. If we wish to prevent the extension of this influence, it can only be done by raising up for the North American colonist some nationality of his own; by elevating these small and unimportant communities into a society having some objects of a national importance; and by thus giving their inhabitants a country which they will be unwilling to see absorbed even into one more powerful.

“While I believe that the establishment of a comprehensive system of government, and of an effectual union between the different provinces, would produce this important effect on the general feelings of their inhabitants, I am inclined to attach very great importance to the influence which it would have in giving greater scope and satisfaction to the legitimate ambition of the most active and prominent persons to be found in them. As long as personal ambition is inherent in human nature, and as long as the morality of every free and civilized community encourages its aspirations, it is one great business of a wise government to provide for its legitimate development. If, as it is commonly asserted, the disorders of these Colonies have, in great measure

been fomented by the influence of designing and ambitious individuals, this evil will best be remedied by allowing such a scope for the desires of such men as shall direct their ambition into the legitimate chance of furthering, and not of thwarting, their government. By creating high prizes in a general and responsible government, we shall immediately afford the means of pacifying the turbulent ambitions, and of employing in worthy and noble occupations the talents which now are only exerted to foment disorder. We must remove from these Colonies the cause to which the sagacity of Adam Smith traced the alienation of the provinces which now form the United States: we must provide some scope for what he calls 'the importance' of the leading men in the colony, beyond what he forcibly terms the present 'petty prizes of the paltry raffle of colonial faction.' A general legislative union would elevate and gratify the hopes of able and aspiring men. They would no longer look with envy and wonder at the great arena of the bordering federation, but see the means of satisfying every legitimate ambition in the high offices of the judicature and executive government of their own union.

"Nor would an union of the various provinces be less advantageous in facilitating a co-operation for various common purposes, of which the want is now very seriously felt. There is hardly a department of the business of government which does not require, or would not be better performed, by being carried on under the superintendence of a general government: and when we consider the political and commercial interests that are common to these provinces, it appears difficult to account for their having ever been divided into separate governments, since they have all been portions of the same empire, subject to the same crown, governed by nearly the same laws and constitutional customs, inhabited, with one exception, by the same race, contiguous and immediately adjacent to each other, and bounded along their whole frontier by the territories of the same powerful and rival state. It would appear that every motive that has induced the union of various provinces into a single state, exists for the consolidation of these colonies under a common legislature and executive. They have the same common relation to the mother country; the same relation to foreign nations. When one is at war, the others are at war; and the hostilities that are caused by an attack on one, must seriously compromise the welfare of the rest. Thus the dispute between Great Britain and the State of Maine, appears immediately to involve the interests of none of these colonies, except New Brunswick or Lower Canada, to one of which the territory claimed by us must belong. But if a war were to commence on this ground, it is most probable that the American government would select Upper Canada as the most vulnerable, or, at any rate, as the easiest point of attack. A dispute respecting the fisheries of Nova Scotia would involve precisely the same consequences. An union for common defence against foreign enemies is the natural bond of connection that holds together the great communities of the world; and between no parts of any kingdom or state is the necessity for such an union more obvious than between the whole of these colonies.

"Their internal relations furnish quite as strong motives for union. The Post-office is at the present moment under the management of the same imperial establishment. If, in compliance with the reasonable demands of the Colonies, the regulation of a matter

so entirely of internal concern, and the revenue derived from it, were placed under the control of the provincial legislatures, it would still be advisable that the management of the Post-office throughout the whole of British North America should be conducted by one general establishment. In the same way, so great is the influence on the other provinces of the arrangements adopted with respect to the disposal of public lands and colonization in any one, that it is absolutely essential that this department of government should be conducted on one system, and by one authority. The necessity of common fiscal regulations is strongly felt by all the colonies; and a common custom-house establishment would relieve them from the hindrances to their trade, caused by the duties now levied on all commercial intercourse between them. The monetary and banking system of all is subject to the same influences, and ought to be regulated by the same laws. The establishment of a common colonial currency is very generally desired. Indeed, I know of no department of government that would not greatly gain, both in economy and efficiency, by being placed under a common management. I should not propose, at first, to alter the existing public establishments of the different provinces, because the necessary changes had better be left to be made by the united government: and the judicial establishments should certainly not be disturbed until the future legislature shall provide for their reconstruction on a uniform and permanent footing. But even in the administration of justice, an union would immediately supply a remedy for one of the most serious wants under which all the provinces labour, by facilitating the formation of a general appellate tribunal for all the North American colonies.

"But the interests which are already in common between all these provinces are small in comparison with those which the consequences of such an union might, and I think I may say assuredly would, call into existence; and the great discoveries of modern art, which have, throughout the world, and nowhere more than in America, entirely altered the character and the channels of communication between distant countries, will bring all the North American colonies into constant and speedy intercourse with each other. The success of the great experiment of steam navigation across the Atlantic, opens a prospect of a speedy communication with Europe, which will materially affect the future state of all these provinces. In a despatch which arrived in Canada after my departure, the Secretary of State informed me of the determination of your Majesty's government to establish a steam communication between Great Britain and Halifax; and instructed me to turn my attention to the formation of a road between that port and Quebec. It would, indeed, have given me sincere satisfaction, had I remained in the province, to promote, by any means in my power, so highly desirable an object; and the removal of the usual restrictions on my authority as governor-general, having given me the means of effectually acting in concert with the various provincial governments, I might have been able to make some progress in the work. But I cannot point out more strikingly the evils of the present want of a general government for these provinces, than by adverting to the difficulty which would practically occur, under the previous and present arrangements of both executive and legislative authorities in the various provinces, in attempting to carry such a plan into effect. For the various colonies have no more

means of concerting such common works with each other, than with the neighbouring states of the union. They stand to one another in the position of foreign states, and of foreign states without diplomatic relations. The governors may correspond with each other: the legislatures may enact laws, carrying the common purposes into effect in their respective jurisdictions; but there is no means by which the various details may speedily and satisfactorily be settled with the concurrence of the different parties. And, in this instance, it must be recollected that the communication and the final settlement would have to be made between, not two, but several of the provinces. The road would run through three of them; and Upper Canada, into which it would not enter, would, in fact, be more interested in the completion of such a work than any even of the provinces through which it would pass. The colonies, indeed, have no common centre in which the arrangement could be made, except in the Colonial Office at home; and the details of such a plan would have to be discussed just where the interests of all parties would have the least means of being fairly and fully represented, and where the minute local knowledge necessary for such a matter would be least likely to be found.

"The completion of any satisfactory communication between Halifax and Quebec, would, in fact, produce relations between these provinces, that would render a general union absolutely necessary.

"With respect to the two small colonies of Prince Edward's Island and Newfoundland, I am of opinion, that not only would most of the reasons which I have given for an union of the others, apply to them, but that their smallness makes it absolutely necessary, as the only means of securing any proper attention to their interests, and investing them with that consideration, the deficiency of which they have so much reason to lament in all the disputes which yearly occur between them and the citizens of the United States, with regard to the encroachments made by the latter on their coasts and fisheries."

When her majesty's government sent Mr. P. Thomson, in 1840, to effect an union between the two Canadas, he was instructed to ascertain the state of affairs in Nova Scotia, and a full discretion was left to him as governor-general, respecting any measures he might recommend. The circular letter of Lord John Russell, of 16th October, 1839 (see History of Canada, p. 38), relating to the tenure of offices during the pleasure of the crown, was communicated by the lieutenant-governor, sir Colin Campbell, to the Nova Scotia House of Assembly, and eagerly hailed as a recognition of their claims for responsible government, and as imposing henceforth on the lieutenant-governor the obligation of dismissing or remodelling his council whenever it ceased to enjoy the confidence of the representatives of the people. The House of Assembly, therefore, on 5th February, 1840, by a majority of 30 to 12, passed a series of resolutions, and forwarded them to the lieutenant-governor, who declined to adopt a policy which he considered

would be a fundamental change in the colonial constitution. The following is a copy of the address of the House of Assembly:—

"To his Excellency Lieutenant-General Sir Colin Campbell, Lieutenant-Governor and Commander-in-Chief in and over Her Majesty's province of Nova Scotia and its dependencies, &c. &c. &c.

"The humble Address of the House of Representatives in General Assembly.

"May it please your Excellency,

"We, Her Majesty's dutiful and loyal subjects, the representatives of Her Majesty's loyal people of Nova Scotia, having, under a solemn sense of duty, passed the annexed resolutions, beg leave to recommend them to your Excellency's favourable consideration.

"In the House of Assembly, 5th February, 1840.

"Mr. Clements, the Chairman of the Committee of the whole house on the general state of the province, reported the following resolutions:—

"*Resolved*,—1. That it is the opinion of this Committee that for many years the best interests of this province have been jeopardized, and its progress retarded, by the want of harmony between the different branches of the Government, and the absence of that cordial co-operation between the representatives of the people and those who conducted the local administration, which, in the view of this Committee, is highly desirable, if not indispensable, in every British colony to which a constitution modelled after that of the mother country has been granted by the Crown.

"*Resolved*,—2. That it is the opinion of this Committee that in the course of the struggle which since 1837 the House of Assembly has maintained, with a view to reduce the expenses, improve the institutions, and purify the administration of the country, it has been met at every step by an influence which, while it was beyond the control of the Assembly, has wielded the whole power and patronage of the government to baffle its efforts, and thwart the wise and benevolent policy avowed by Her Majesty's ministers.

"*Resolved*,—3. That it is the opinion of this Committee that in approaching many of the important questions to be disposed of in the present session, the House of Assembly feels embarrassment and difficulty which it would be unwise to conceal either from the Government or the country at large; and that it can anticipate no satisfactory settlement of those questions until the Executive Council is so remodelled as to secure to the House of Assembly the aid of the local Administration in carrying out the views of the Assembly, and in facilitating any negotiation which it may be necessary to conduct with Her Majesty's Government.

"*Resolved*, therefore, 4. That it is the opinion of the Committee that the House of Assembly, after mature and calm deliberation, weary of seeing the revenues of the country and the time of its representatives wasted, the people of Nova Scotia misrepresented to the Sovereign, and the gracious boons of the Sovereign marred in the transmission to the people, do now solemnly declare that the Executive Council, as at present constituted, does not enjoy the confidence of the Commons."

On the 9th of July, 1840, the governor-general arrived from Quebec at Halifax, and in obedience to the commands of the queen, temporarily assumed the government

of the colony; of which the lieutenant-governorship was in the hands of Sir Colin Campbell.

On the 27th of July, the governor-general recommended to Lord John Russell, then her majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies certain changes in the Legislative and Executive Councils of the province; he considered that the Executive Council was composed in a way which, whilst it created dissatisfaction, afforded the government no assistance or strength whatsoever; that the queen did not derive from her officers that aid in the management of public affairs in the legislature, which was absolutely indispensable for them in the management of a colony, and that as a necessary result the government did not and could not perform one of its first duties, namely, to propose and submit to the colonial legislature, with the full weight of its authority, whatever measures might appear requisite for the good government of the province, the very consideration of which would divert the minds of active and ambitious men from the agitation of abstract points of government. The principle recommended by the governor-general, was that the Executive Council should comprise only the leading official servants of the government, and a few of the most influential members of the Legislative Council, and of the House of Assembly, but especially of the latter. Next, that the law officers of the crown, and any other public servants whose services it might be desirable to obtain, should be required, when necessary, to become members of the House of Assembly, as well as of the Executive Council, in order to afford their assistance there; and that their whole undivided time and talents should be at the disposal of government. In the Legislative Council it was proposed to make additions from the popular party in order to remove the imputation of an exclusive character; and by such modifications it was hoped to bring the Executive and Legislative Councils into more harmony with the general opinions of the House of Assembly, or popular branch of the legislature. By direction of Lord John Russell these reforms were carried into effect, under the administration of Lord Falkland, who had been ap-

pointed to succeed Sir C. Campbell; since that time the province has been free from internal dissension, and although such changes were opposed by some, they have undoubtedly been satisfactory to the great majority of the colonists, and by a prompt compliance with reasonable requests, disturbances which no subsequent concessions would have been sufficient to allay, have been avoided. Viscount Falkland received great credit for the judicious manner in which he effected the important change in the colonial government. Lord Sydenham (Mr. P. Thompson), in a letter dated Montreal, 12th of May, 1811, to Lord Falkland (who is now governor of Bombay), says,—“I have watched your proceedings with great anxiety, and am much gratified at the result. I think it in the highest degree creditable to your tact and judgment. I enter completely into the difficulties of which you speak, in carrying out improvements notwithstanding your *governmental* majority, as they term that sort of thing in France. It is the misfortune of all popular governments in our colonies, the people are made legislators before they have either intelligence or education to know how to set about their work; and, as under such circumstances, selfishness and preference of their little local jobs, to any views of general advantage, must prevail amongst them, the progress of practical improvement cannot but be slow. But do not despair, you have certainly no grounds whatever to do so, for you have achieved a vast deal even in this your first session.” The further history of the province does not present any facts worthy of detail. The following is a list of the English governors:—

1749. Hon. E. Cornwallis.
1752. P. Hopson.
1754. C. Lawrence.
1756. R. Moncton.
1760. J. Belcher.
1764. M. Wilmot.
1766. M. Franklin.
— Lord W. Campbell.
1772. M. Franklin.
— Lord W. Campbell.
1773. F. Lege.
— M. Franklin.
1776. M. Arbuthnot.
1778. R. Hughes.
1781. Sir A. S. Hammond.
1782. J. Parr.
— Sir A. S. Hammond.
1783. F. Fanning.
1791. R. Bulkely.
1792. J. Wentworth.

1803. Sir G. Prevost.
— A. Croke.
1809. Sir G. Prevost.
1811. Sir J. Sherbrooke.
1811. Gen. Barock.
1814. Sir J. Sherbrooke.
1816. Gen. Smyth.
1816. Earl of Dalhousie.
1818. M. Wallace.
1819. Lord Dalhousie.
1820. Sir J. Kempt.
1824. M. Wallace.
1825. Sir J. Kempt.
— M. Wallace.
— Sir J. Kempt.
1828. M. Wallace.
— Sir P. Maitland.
1834. Sir C. Campbell.
1840. Lord Falkland.
1846. Sir John Harvey.

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